

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 66

MARCH, 1912

No. 1



The Candidates and the Issues

We are not permitted to forget that this is "presidential" year. The national conventions come in June, but the newspapers and political circles are full of the presidential topic. Who are the candidates? Who are the likely nominees? What will the issues be?

Since our last survey of the political field interesting developments have not been rare. The most important of them, unquestionably, is the Roosevelt boom. There are those who not only insist that Colonel Roosevelt is a candidate for the Republican nomination, but who go on to predict that he will be nominated by a "stampeded convention" and elected by an unprecedented popular majority. At one time rumors were current that President Taft, as a weary and disgusted man, had decided to retire and decline to be a candidate; his own declaration that "nothing but death could remove him from the field" disposed of those rumors.

So Mr. Taft is a candidate; Senator La Follette is an avowed candidate, and has been touring the country and presenting his platform—a most radical one, by the way, including as it does the referendum, the initiative and the recall (the judiciary not being exempt from the last-named reform); Senator Cummins of Iowa, has announced his candidacy; Colonel Roosevelt, in the opinion of many politicians and editors, is a candidate, although he has repeatedly stated that he was not and would not become one. In

some states where the law provides for an advisory presidential primary Mr. Roosevelt's name has been placed on the primary ballot. Straw votes in newspapers and elsewhere indicate that many favor the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt either because they fear President Taft could not win if nominated or else because they are not satisfied with these or those features of the Taft administration. A number of Republican Senators and Representatives say openly that "Taft does not take the progressive view" of things; others think he is sufficiently progressive, but not sufficiently forceful, aggressive and efficient. As to Colonel Roosevelt, not only are many insurgents for him, but moderate business men are advocating his nomination—the latter chiefly on account of his trust ideas, his severe attacks on the Sherman act and his advocacy of constructive legislation permitting combinations and regulating them in the interest of the public.

The Roosevelt boom has revived the "third term" question. Mr. Roosevelt himself once said solemnly that the tradition against three terms for any President was wise and salutary, and he made a pledge against accepting a nomination for a third term. But his present supporters assert that he had reference to three "consecutive" terms. After a "break," they argue, a man may be nominated and elected for a third term without danger to the Republic or fear of dictatorships, autocracy, undue influence, etc. Does Mr. Roosevelt himself take this position? Would he accept a nomination in spite of his "pledge," regarding the condition of things today as being very different from that which called forth his self-denying ordinance? This question may in due time be answered by Mr. Roosevelt himself; it cannot be answered for him by anyone. Meantime there is much talk concerning the third-term tradition, the meaning and necessity of it, and so on. Should Mr. Roosevelt be nominated, it is safe to say that "the third-term" will be one of the leading issues of the campaign.

In the Democratic camp the developments have been less exciting. No new candidates have appeared. Some of the "possibilities" have lost a little ground, some have won a little. The "stock" of Woodrow Wilson has gone up in spite of many bitter attacks and charges of ingratitude to personal friends and indiscreet "boomers." Governor Harmon has made some strong speeches and advanced his candidacy, but the radicals and insurgents of his party are as hostile to him as they were before.

As to the issues of the presidential campaign, there is no indication that any one of them will become "paramount." The tariff, the trusts, finance, monopoly, the cost of living—these are the issues which the platform makers and leaders must face and discuss. They are the issues which the presidential candidates or "possibilities" are actually discussing. It is still true and manifest, however, that, with the exception of the element of protection in the tariff, as to which a real issue exists, there is very little to differentiate the up-to-date progressive Republican from the progressive Democrat. That is why some thinkers predict a realignment of groups and forces within a few years.



First Report of the Tariff Board

It will be recalled that President Taft vetoed three tariff bills last year—downward revision bills which a combination of Democrats and insurgent or progressive Republicans succeeded in putting through Congress. He vetoed the bills, including the best-considered and most popular of them, the wool and woolens bill, because he had no information to enable him to determine their soundness and fairness. He was pledged to downward revision of the tariff, and had admitted that the wool and woolens schedule—the notorious Schedule K—particularly needed overhauling; still, he was not willing to act on alleged information obtained in the ordinary way. A tariff board, nonpartisan and impartial, was at that very time gathering information

about wool and other industries, and comparing American with European conditions of production, costs, wages, quality, etc. The President argued that he was bound to wait for the reports of this body of investigators, because he had appointed it, public opinion had approved it, and everybody was weary of the log-rolling, guessing, fabrication, misrepresentation, trading which had for decades characterized tariff-making.

The President's vetoes were sharply criticized, especially by revenue-tariff men, who do not accept differences in the cost of production as a test of proper protection. But there was much to be said for the the vetoes from the viewpoint of moderate protectionists who would equalize by duties the differences between American and old-world or foreign costs of production. The real question was: Would the tariff board make reports of value and facilitate tariff revision instead of postponing and hampering it?

The board made its first report in December, and dealt with wool and woollens. The report was very thorough, comprehensive and scientific. It contained a mass of relevant and important information regarding wool and the manufactures of wool. It showed that many of the rates in the wool schedule were prohibitory; that they were much in excess of the difference in the cost of production; that they tended to eliminate foreign competition and establish domestic monopolies; that there was ample reason for a revision downward of the whole schedule in accordance with the protective principle.

President Taft promptly sent a message to Congress urging revision of the schedule in consonance with the report. At first nothing but praise of the report was heard, and it seemed that congressional action must quickly follow. If the report commended itself to all interests and parties, what was there to hinder immediate action? Unfortunately differences of opinion were not long in making their appearance. The report, some said, left matters where they

had been prior to the investigation. There were no definite recommendations in it; much was still uncertain; the stand-patters regarded the report as a vindication of the existing tariff; the Democrats found no guidance in its discussion of costs of production. And so on. Disappointment, in short, was expressed in many quarters.

But the fact remains that the report provides a far better basis for rate reductions than the ordinary methods do. Something is indeed left to Congress, but in doing that something, in fixing new rates of duty, it can follow facts and trustworthy evidence instead of ex-parte assertions and conjectures. We have no real tariff commission to recommend reductions; perhaps one will be created, as many believe it ought to be created. The present tariff board has limited powers and limited resources; it has done its work well and as far as it goes that work is valuable, at least to those who believe in piecemeal revision of the tariff and in some degree of protection.



Proposed Labor-Capital Inquiry

We had occasion recently to comment on a very remarkable manifesto issued in England by a group of distinguished men who represented capital, science, labor, and public spirit. The document dealt with the strike and lock-out problem, the warfare between employers and employed, the bitter industrial discord and its many demoralizing effects, and urged earnest study of modern remedies and solutions—notably profit-sharing, co-operation and the like.

As a direct result of the McNamara confessions and similar events, an American manifesto on labor conditions has been issued by a body of social workers, educators, ethical and religious teachers, and enlightened men of affairs. In form the manifesto was a petition to the President and Congress urging the creation of a national commission to study thoroughly the industrial situation, with its strikes, violence, wastes, economic and social losses, and

to consider and recommend remedies. It is to be hoped that the commission will be appointed and the inquiry made. What the labor problem is, what trade unionism does or fails to do, what arbitration does or fails to do, whether strikes can be prevented, whether compulsion in settling strikes is desirable—these are all vital and “burning” things.

Meantime, however, the document should be studied by the general public, for which it is of course intended. It contains wholesome truth that employers, labor leaders, intelligent workmen, as well as legislators and officials, should take to heart. The importance of the petition is such, and its style is so impressive, that we reproduce it on page 22 of this issue as a most significant social-economic and moral document characteristic of our epoch—an epoch of storm and stress, but also of hope, promise and noble endeavor. Among the signers were Jane Addams, Dr. Lyman Abbott, Rabbi Wise, George Foster Peabody, John M. Glenn, John Collier, and Professors Carver, Jenks. Patten, Ely, Fisher, Fetter, Ross and Seligman.



Railroad Finance and Publicity

The question of regulating railroad finance, so as to prevent inflation and overcapitalization of railroad properties, or the issue of securities for doubtful purposes, has been before Congress and the country for some years. If we regulate railroad rates, forbid rebates, supervise common carriers in many ways, because they are natural monopolies and dependent upon special privileges, the same principle clearly justifies control of railroad finance. But the question of providing for such control has proved a knotty one. Legislation has been proposed and rejected either as too radical or as too superficial. State rights are involved. It finally became manifest that the matter required close and impartial study. President Taft, under a provision of Congress, appointed a commission of experts, headed by Dr. Hadley of Yale, to investigate and report on the subject.

This able and enlightened commission lately submitted its report. The President, reversing himself, indorsed the report because of its evident sincerity and soundness. The press generally finds the report convincing, although it is largely negative.

Briefly put, the commission held that direct and complete federal control and regulation of issues of railroad stocks and bonds would at this time serve no useful purpose; that legislation apparently "radical" on this matter might prove injurious and deceptive; that conflicts of state and federal jurisdiction would arise to confuse the situation and add to existing litigation and perplexity; and that the safer and sounder plan was to limit the federal government for the present to the rigorous use of the weapon of full, accurate and prompt publicity as to railroad securities. In the opinion of the commission publicity would do a great deal toward eliminating "frenzied" or even unsound railroad finance, and thus protect alike investors and shippers. On this point the commission said:

Accurate knowledge of the facts surrounding the issue of securities and the expenditure of the proceeds is the matter of most importance. It is one thing upon which the federal government can effectively insist today; it is the fundamental thing which must serve as a basis for whatever regulation may be desirable in the future. If full publicity be given we shall also lessen the fraudulent creation of debt. It is the degree of publicity rather than the stringency of the law which gives to the people any real protection.

The commission recommends physical valuation of railroads in certain cases, but points out that reforms in rate-making do not necessarily depend on physical values. On the whole, the commission deprecated "radical" treatment of railroad finance, while emphasizing the beneficial effect of thoroughgoing publicity in curing past or preventing future evils.



What and Where the Americans Are

Whatever anthropologists and sociologists may say about the American type, for the rough and general pur-

poses of current discussion, an American is one born in the United States. Naturalized citizens may be loyal and proud Americans, but most of them are "hyphenated Americans;" they are still German, British, Scandinavian or Russian in some sense, or to some degree, and are willing to have that implied in their names. Those born of foreign parents know no "hyphen" and are "pure" Americans. As to the offspring of such, the children of native-born parents, no trace of anything foreign is found among them, as their early environment and associations were American. A recent table based on the new census gives us an idea of the distribution of the element which had native-born parents and its percentage of the whole local population. Here is the table in part:

West Virginia	85.3
Kentucky	81.4
Indiana	80.0
Oklahoma	79.0
New Mexico	78.0
Tennessee	75.7
Texas	67.0
North Carolina	67.0
Maine	67.0
Ohio	65.0
Illinois	48.0
Michigan	45.0
New Jersey	43.0
New York	37.0
Connecticut	37.0
Massachusetts	34.0
Wisconsin	33.0
Minnesota	29.0

This showing is very striking when analyzed. The most "American" of our states, it appears, are West Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana and Tennessee. A study of their characteristics from this point of view should prove interesting. Are they superior, and if so, wherein? What is the condition of their politics and morals? It appears that in thirteen states "foreigners" are in the majority, while in twelve states the native stock comprises more than two-thirds of the population. Of course, the states or sections that have

attracted heavy immigration year after year and decade after decade are the most "foreign."



Wisconsin Income Tax Upheld

Attention was called in these pages to the very progressive spirit of the decision of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin in the employers' liability and accident compensation case. In the opinion rendered in that case the court laid down vital and advanced rules of constitutional construction. The same spirit and principles underlie a decision rendered in the even more far-reaching income tax case.

The case involved the constitutionality of the new state act for the taxation of incomes. The power of a state to tax incomes was not disputed, but the power to make exemptions and provide for graduated or progressive taxes on incomes was warmly disputed; the Wisconsin law containing such "radical" features. It taxes no income below \$800 a year; a man and wife together are exempt up to \$1,200 a year. All higher incomes are taxed on a graduated scale—the larger the income, the higher the rate of taxation. Are these things permissible under constitutions which prescribe uniformity and equality of treatment for citizens, which recognize no classes or castes, which guarantee due process of law?

They are, says the Wisconsin Supreme Court with emphasis and unanimity. A state income tax may or may not be wise, but courts have nothing to do with policy. The people and legislature of the state had decreed income taxation, and that was final. As to the alleged inequalities and differences in treatment complained of, the act merely recognized conditions and facts. Incomes are not equal; opportunities are not equal; burdens are not equal; progressive taxation therefore is not unjust under modern conditions, and it would be pedantic and technical to hold that such taxation was forbidden by constitutional provisions drawn under totally different conditions.

Here we have again the doctrine of marching and vital constitutions, of construction in the light of reason and equity as felt by our own generation. Plain prohibitions are one thing; vague, general phrases are another thing. In applying the latter elasticity, modernity and sense are required of the courts.



Reforms that Are Rapidly Advancing

Whatever one may think of certain radical tendencies in American politics, with reference to a number of reforms conditions, not theories, confront him. Events have their own logic, and events have produced striking changes in public opinion.

A few years ago "government by commission" was little and unfavorably known. Today commission government is in force and effect in scores of cities, large and small. A volume has been compiled giving a history of this movement, and one national body proposes to investigate it. Commission rule may assume various forms and develop evils of its own, but its necessity and utility as a remedy for graft, cheap politics, division of responsibility and crying inefficiency are widely recognized, and it is making headway steadily and rapidly.

Two years ago "the short ballot" was a phrase little understood. When explained, the average citizen was inclined to deprecate it as savoring of tyranny and lack of faith. Today the short ballot movement is national and has a record of many successes. The short ballot has many friends and few intelligent enemies. Cities and states are adopting it, thus getting rid of a serious abuse—the multiplication of elective officers and blind voting. Is there any reason, asks the average man, why clerks of courts, state printers, chief bailiffs, etc., should be elected? Is democracy as a principle opposed to responsibility, to efficiency, to discipline, to leadership? It is not, answers the thoughtful man, and the short ballot is accepted with enthusiasm.

The following facts were given recently in *Collier's Weekly* regarding the short ballot movement:

California leads the country in the application of the short ballot idea to State offices. After the victory at the primaries, the Lincoln-Roosevelt League made the short ballot the first specific plank in the Republican platform. Hiram Johnson preached that issue up and down the State. The result is that the State printer is no longer an elective officer, and that in the vote on various measures, which is to be held October 10, the clerk of the Supreme Court is likely to go. It is an honorable position for California to hold—to lead in a movement which is destined to a great future. The States must in time follow the cities. Already the short ballot exists in eight cities or towns in California. Kansas has the most towns—twenty-four, Pratt being the latest addition. Then comes Texas and Illinois with sixteen each. Oklahoma with fourteen, South Dakota with nine, Iowa with eight. Utah and Alabama are new arrivals with five and three respectively. Massachusetts and Michigan have four each; West Virginia, North Carolina, and North Dakota, three each; Colorado, Mississippi, Tennessee, Washington and Wisconsin two each. In Idaho, Lewiston is the pioneer; in Kentucky, Newport; in Louisiana, Shreveport; in Maryland, Cumberland; in Montana, Missoula; in New Mexico, Roswell; in Oregon, Baker; in South Dakota, Columbia.

Direct primaries constituted a terrible "heresy" a few years ago. Today it is good orthodox doctrine that direct primaries are better than conventions and caucus rule. Maine voted for a direct primary. New York, after desperate resistance by old-type machine politicians, has adopted a fairly comprehensive, if faulty, primary act, which will be perfected by future legislatures. With direct primaries go acts against corrupt practices, against scandalous or heavy expenditures in campaigns, against loose, immoral, careless methods of getting votes.

The referendum, the initiative, and even the recall—except as regards the judiciary—are marching all over the country. The people have not lost faith in representative government, but they insist on checks and devices that will make and keep their servants truly representative. Legislative scandals, corruption, bribery, waste, tyranny, the domination of special interests—these are the "arguments" that are introducing the innovations in question. No sober-minded observer can doubt that the reforms specified above will spread all over the United States.

Are American Morals and Manners Deteriorating?

Professor Franklin Giddings of Columbia University, a leading sociologist, stated in a recent lecture that sober-minded observers must recognize "a profound deterioration in American manners and morals." In the last twenty years, according to Professor Giddings, alike public and private life and conduct have shown a decline. There is greater toleration of vice, laxity, irreverence and flippancy; there are more scandals and "easy divorces," and there is a lower tone generally in amusements and in speech and popular literature.

There is much in this arraignment that is true. It is calculated to give us pause. If there has been deterioration, there may be ways and means of checking it in the future. What are its causes? What are the preventives and remedies? Professor Giddings holds that we lack "like-mindedness," and that heavy immigration, the babel of tongues and standards and customs, rapid growth and poor assimilation are the chief causes of the moral retrogression he deplures. Many agree with him, not only in his statement of fact, but also in his diagnosis and suggested cure. But there are others who regard his assertion as too sweeping, who believe that, on the whole, there has been progress, moral advance in our public, political, social and domestic life, and that the evils so apparent on many sides are neither deep-seated nor "American."

The *New York World*, in comment on Professor Giddings' remarks, said:

However it may be with morals, further proof is needed that manners have declined. The testimony of many foreign observers is that they have improved in the half-century.

Present-day American manners may have less of a courteous flourish to them than gentlemen of the old school might desire. They are simpler and perhaps have a smack of business-like directness. But what they have lost in formality they have gained in uniformity. They are not the possession of one social class but of all. American manners have undergone a democratization which has bettered their general quality and tended to eliminate the kind of "Americanism" which Dickens and Mrs. Trollope satirized.

Taking manners to mean morals, an age which has put the ban of public disapproval on prize-fighting, gambling and drunkenness, which has enforced laws against political corruption and discovered forms of dishonesty and immorality to agitate against which raised no scruples among our ancestors, cannot be hastily indicted for deterioration from earlier standards of conduct. It is not by the mob at a lynching but by the added force of the moral sentiment which reprobates the barbarity that the measure of American progress in manners is to be taken.

The Chicago *Record-Herald*, writing on the same text, said:

The notion that there is more corruption in public life than there was a generation or two ago is wholly baseless. There is more publicity, and this is mistaken for more corruption, but as a matter of fact the trend in public life is upward and forward. We demand more honesty and delicacy, not less, of our legislators, judges and executives. The abolition of passes, perquisites, fees and sinecures is a result and mark of moral advance. The merit system is another result; the anti-corrupt-practice laws are still another.

As to manners, there has been deterioration in some directions, on account of new factors which make for confusion. There is less respect for age than there ought to be; there is less gallantry and chivalry than we should like to see; there is too much pushing and elbowing. But, on the other hand, the improvement in table manners and in conversation is indisputable; equally patent is the improvement in office manners. Education, the reading habit, the unprecedented circulation of papers and magazines, the peopleization of the theater, the concert hall and the opera house have all worked together as refining influences.

As to the remedies for the deterioration where it is admitted, or where it threatens, the consensus of opinion is that they are found in more attention to moral training, in spiritual and social work, in better distribution and friendlier treatment of immigrants, etc. The essential thing is to develop "like-mindedness" in a nation, and where this is difficult, on account of heterogeneity of population and heavy immigration, the duty and necessity of steadily pursuing the task is all the greater.



India, Britain and New Policy

The Durbar, unlike the coronation of the king and queen of the United Kingdom "at home," was much more than "a purely social function." It was made the occasion for the announcement of important changes in policy. The

tories regard these changes as "grave," but from any liberal point of view they must seem moderate and wise. Discontent is general and deep in India; mere repression will not reconcile the more educated and progressive Hindu population to British rule; steps must be taken toward the self-government of the great subject empire. The present Indian government, which reflects the ideas of the present British government, fully recognizes the underlying facts of the situation, and in a formal statement explaining the removal of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi, made these significant admissions:

"It is certain that, in the course of time, the just demands of Indians for a larger share in the government of the country will have to be satisfied, and the question will be how this devolution of power can be conceded without impairing the supreme authority of the Governor-General-in-Council. The only possible solution of the difficulty would appear to be gradually to give the Provinces a larger measure of self-government, until at last India would consist of a number of administrations, autonomous in all provincial affairs, with the Government of India above them all, and possessing power to interfere in cases of misgovernment, but ordinarily restricting their functions to matters of Imperial concern. In order that this consummation may be attained, it is essential that the Supreme Government should not be associated with any Provincial Government. The removal of the Government of India from Calcutta, is, therefore, a measure which will, in our opinion, materially facilitate the growth of local self-government on sound and safe lines. It is generally recognized that the capital of a great central Government should be separate and independent, and effect has been given to this principle in the United States, Canada, and Australia."

Bengal, divided under Curzon's administration, is to be reunited, the resentment caused among the natives at the partition being recognized as just. Other reforms, with various customary remissions of fines, pardons for offenders, grants for education, etc., were announced in connection with the Durbar. The essential point, however, is that Great Britain, at least as far as it is represented by the Asquith ministry and the majority in the commons, definitely and publicly admits that the only way of successfully maintaining British supremacy in India is to give her more and more autonomy, more and more freedom and opportunity for the development and application of native ability.

India is to be no exception to the modern rule of colonial policy. The doctrines applied in Canada, Australia, South Africa are the doctrines that must, more slowly perhaps, be applied in India and Egypt. The Orient is not to be dogmatically and arrogantly pronounced naturally unfit for self-government; the principles of democracy and modern progress are not to be limited to the West by self-constituted benevolent despots. The greatest glory of British rule in India and Egypt is to be the glory of relinquishing power more and more and transferring it to competent native hands. This may take many decades, but the task must be pursued systematically and steadily.



New German Reichstag

Five years ago the general elections in Germany resulted in a victory for the imperial government and the chancellor of that time, Von Buelow. The latter, it is true, had hoped to crush or weaken the Center or Catholic party, with which he had quarreled, and had been disappointed in that hope, for the Center fully maintained its strength. But the Social Democrats lost about forty seats in that election, an appeal having been made to nationalism and patriotism, and the empire having been represented as being in grave peril through opposition on the part of the radical elements to increased naval and military expenditures. Von Buelow and the court rejoiced exceedingly and were in fact able to carry out their "defence" program. But the socialists knew that their losses were temperary, while Von Buelow was unable to command a majority for other than "patriotic" bills and was forced to resign. His successor, the present chancellor, Bethmann-Hollweg, announced that he would seek no party support, form no alliances, make no promises; that he would remain above and outside all parties. This was a step backward, for Von Buelow had indirectly advanced genuine parliamentary government and the principle of "responsible cabinets." The success of the

attempt, moreover, was doubted. Still, the chancellor and the imperial government knew that the reactionary, conservative and moderate groups together controlled the reichstag, and while there was occasional friction and criticism, the government could count on a majority on all important questions. But that reichstag came to its natural end, and a new one had to be elected. The Moroccan settlement had displeased the conservatives; dear food, high tariff duties, heavy taxation and demands for still heavier army and navy appropriations were unpopular with the working classes, while the liberal elements of the empire had grievances of their own. The imperial chancellor and even the kaiser himself made appeals to the electorate in the interest of conservative candidates or supporters of the government's policies. Social democracy was declared to be "the enemy" on account of its opposition to military waste and frenzied rivalry in armaments.

The general elections were held on January 12, and the results of the balloting on that day were a blow and disappointment to the government, as well as to the mild liberal and radical groups. The Social Democrats had made large gains and had captured many seats from the other parties. In many constituencies, however, second ballots were necessary, since none of the candidates had secured a majority of the votes cast. The second ballots were cast on January 19, 22, and 25. The Social Democrats continued their successes, and the government suffered further losses.

The net result of the general election is the virtual disappearance of the "safe" government majority. The conservative groups and Catholic centrists together have only 190 seats, as against 208 seats of the "opposition," of which the Social Democrats, with 110 seats constitute the most formidable and solid group.

The position of the several parties or groups in the new reichstag is as follows:

Socialists, 110; centrists, 93; conservatives, 66; national liberals, 47; radicals, 44; Poles, 18; all others, 19.

The balance of power is with the national liberals and their allies, the more advanced "radicals." The government will be forced to make concessions to these groups. It is said, indeed, that the kaiser may dissolve the reichstag and order another general election, but would that make a favorable impression on the country and tend to strengthen conservatism? Would it not rather increase opposition and make more Socialists and radicals?



Chinese Republic

Amazing as the fact may appear to western skeptics, China seems to be ready for some form of republican government. At least, the firmness of the revolutionary leaders, the absence of disorder in the rebellious provinces, the support of the republican movement by the merchants, students and masses—all such things as these seem to show that the ancient empire is not as dependent on a dynasty for national unity as many have thought. It is, indeed, remembered by astonished observers of the Chinese developments that autonomy and democracy are fundamental principles in the "Celestial Kingdom."

True, the western powers, in spite of appeals by the representatives of China's republican government, have withheld recognition from the Republic. They have confidence in Dr. Wu Ting Fang, the Minister of Justice in the Republic, who was well known and admired in the United States, and also in the President, Dr. Sun Yat Sen, who was born in Hawaii, who has lived there as an exile, and who is a devoted patriot, a sincere Christian and reformer. But Dr. Sun was not elected president by a national convention or popular vote, and the authority of the military commanders who did elect him was by no means clear or undisputed. On the other hand, the Premier, Yuan Shi-Kai, who is still considered to be the man of the hour in China, influenced

governmental opinion in the West by his opposition to a republican form of government. He has, however, been accused of double-dealing, of subtle diplomacy, of a secret preference for a republic—provided he be the president of it. This, coupled with strange moves on his part that were variously explained and never understood, has perplexed those who were at first inclined to support the principle of constitutional monarchy in China. Without anticipating events, the progress of the revolution and the amazing collapse of the Mahchu dynasty have demonstrated, first, that China is ripe for a real, not merely nominal, change of régime; that the masses have not been indifferent to misrule and corruption; and that political, economic and fiscal reforms have a sound foundation in national sentiment.

The Chinese Republic, as above stated, has repeatedly petitioned the great western powers for "recognition" in a diplomatic sense. But the powers, including the United States, are slow and careful in such matters. The situation in the northern provinces must be taken into account; the danger of Manchu reprisals and conspiracies cannot be ignored. Moreover, the secession of even a few Chinese provinces, or of Mongolia and Manchuria, would create serious complications. The establishment of the Russian protectorate over Mongolia would lead to demands for "compensation" from Japan and other powers. Chinese integrity is desirable from every point of view if such integrity can possibly be preserved. It is not, therefore, necessarily evidence of hostility to republicanism in the powers to withhold recognition from the Chinese Republic as it exists in the South. The interests of peace, trade, order must be earnestly considered.

Notes

TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

Petition presented by deputation of educators, social workers, and others on December 30, 1911.

The case of the State of California vs. the McNamaras is legally closed.

By confession of their guilt, the trial has been brought to a conclusion swift and indisputable. In all subsequent criminal proceedings involving industrial relations, we trust that the outcome as to guilt or innocence will be as clear and decisive.

But what happens from now on to the McNamaras in San Quentin prison does not concern the American people so profoundly as what happened, is happening, and may happen to workmen who did not and would not use dynamite as a method to secure their ends.

Their case has not been before the tribunal of the law. It comes before a larger tribunal—the social conscience of the nation, of which the law is only a partial expression. The courts accept and interpret the progress which society has made; but progress in a democracy implies the people's freedom to criticise and develop the very civilization which the courts conserve.

With our stupendous manufacturing development, the industrial workers assembled in many cities exceed by thousands the entire populations of whole states a generation ago. Our statutes in the main were originally enacted for the different conditions existing before these industrial changes and naturally such evolution as there has been, has been dominated by the readily mobilized forces and influences controlled by capital. Here, in part, lies the explanation of that serious distrust which has come to be felt by great masses of workers toward the fabric of our law and the structure and control of the machinery through which we apply it.

In order to arrive at the worker's point of view, it is necessary only to review the long list of occupational diseases, the failure of both employers and the state to prevent them or mitigate their effects, the lack of employers' liability laws, the failure to provide adequate safeguards against accidents in dangerous vocations, the attacks upon the constitutionality of laws to shorten the hours of women and of workers in certain trades, the reluctance of legislatures to abolish child labor—it is necessary only to contrast this dead center of the social machinery with the speed at which it acts to prevent picketing and rioting during strikes. The workingman sees the club of the officer, the bayonet of the militia directed against him in the defense of property, and he believes that the hand of the law, strong in the protection of property, often drops listless whenever measures are proposed to lighten labor's heavy burden. Occasional and imperfect expressions of this underlying feeling reach the surface. Those who dismiss them as sporadic assaults upon the judiciary have no appreciation

of the depth and breadth of the social situation. There is profound restlessness among large groups of labor who feel that there are no organic ways open through which they can act collectively with respect to the thing that most concerns them—that they are thwarted when they get together for common strength and when, not as mutual benefit societies, but as aggregations of men, they set out to mind their business.

Thinking men and women of the nation must ask themselves: What channels are open to American workmen who, through collective effort, seek to better their conditions?

Are the American people prepared to counsel violence as the method to be employed—force, dynamite, intimidation? The answer has been given at Los Angeles: No, and the country affirms the judgment.

Is the channel of political action open? The answer of the spirit and institutions of the American democracy is—Yes; and in increasing numbers, the workmen of the United States are each year turning to the ballot as a way out.

But are there not channels open for economic action to secure industrial justice? The answer made by great groups of employers and employes who jointly, year in and year out, adjust their interests without disturbance, and settle their differences without bitterness, is: Yes. The answer made by equally powerful industrial groups, of which the structural iron trade is in part a sobering example, is—No.

No: in terms of the labor policy which unrestricted capital has deemed itself justified to employ on grounds of self-protection.

No: in terms of discharge of those workmen who, refusing to rely for fair play and security upon the good nature of foremen and superintendents, have attempted organized action.

No: in terms of spy systems and strike breaking organizations equipped to man a job and break the backs of local strikes, whether or no their cause be just.

No: in terms of evictions, injunctions, the very instruments of our self-government turned to root out the simplest forms of democratic action.

No: in terms of the economic disfranchisement of vast groups of American wage-earners.

Who is right?

The American people as a whole must think these things through. Too much hangs on them for mere individual conviction to be the last word. We need more light. Mindful, as the undersigned are, of the important duty which the department of justice

has before it, we hold that the criminal court is not a sufficient instrument through which the democracy can address itself to the economic struggle. The federal grand juries may well concern themselves with those who have carried dynamite across state boundaries. We want light along a more crucial boundary line—the borderland between industry and democracy. We want light on that larger lawlessness which is beyond the view of the criminal court. This is a matter of public defence in which we, as a people, should if necessary invest as much money as we put into a battleship. We appeal to the Federal Government to create a commission, with as great scientific competence, staff, resources, and power to compel testimony; as the Interstate Commerce Commission:—

1.—To investigate (and on this point make a preliminary report within six months) conditions of labor during the last six years in the structural iron trade, including in the study the organizations of employers and employes, the methods and purposes of each, and the relations of each to the other.

2.—To gauge the break-down of our machinery of industrial government by tracing the trend of law and judicial decision through state and federal courts with respect to labor causes (the boycott, the picket, the injunction, the strike); and to examine the exact economic and legal status of the union, the union member, the non-union man, the strike-breaker, the tenant of a company house.

3.—To investigate the economic and social cost of strikes to employers, to workmen, and to the public.

4.—To examine and review the rules and records of trade unions—and employers' associations in their relations to each other; the conditions of the trades in which unions are strong and those in which no unions exist.

5.—To study and make report on the scope and methods and resources of federal and state bureaus of labor to the end that they may meet permanently those responsibilities which—through the work of such a commission would be more adequately defined.

6.—To make special and exhaustive study into the practicability and working principles of schemes of economic government such as the trade legislature in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry, the joint arbitration board—which for seven years controlled the New York building trades, the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, the Canadian Industrial disputes acts, the minimum wage board long established in Australia and recently introduced in England.

Today, as fifty years ago, a house divided against itself cannot stand. We have yet to solve the problems of democracy in its industrial relationships and to solve them along democratic lines. On the same vitality, the same idealism, the same constructive justice of the people which stood the stress of Lincoln's time, we ground our confidence in petitioning the President and Congress of the United States to appoint a commission to investi-

gate, study, and consider the grave problems of internal statesmanship herein set forth.

PANAMA CANAL AND FREE TOLLS

The Director of the Pan American Union has prepared a summarized statement of his position with regard to the question of making the Panama Canal free to the shipping and commerce of all nations. Two interesting paragraphs are reprinted below.

If the United States would experience the largest benefits possible to its foreign commerce from the Panama Canal, it will make this interoceanic waterway as free to the ships of all nations as are the two oceans which it will connect. The only valid reasons for charging tolls are, first, to pay the cost of operation, maintenance and interest on investment, and, second, to protect the transcontinental railways from the competition of a free Canal. If, then, corresponding and compensating advantages in each case will result from a free canal, it should be made free. The increase of the trade of the United States through a free canal will be so much greater than that through a toll canal that this increase in the first year would equal the revenue from tolls for five years, while the increase resulting from a free canal over that of a toll canal would pay nearly twice over the original cost of the canal, or fifty times the cost of annual operation, etc.

A free canal, in addition to increasing the commerce of the United States in ten years to fifty times the cost of operation, maintenance, and interest, will accomplish other results. It will absolutely destroy all possibility, in any shape or manner, of monopoly in interoceanic traffic. It will encourage every ship-owning, operating, or chartering company or individual in the world to build, operate, or charter vessels to use the Canal. It will keep rates between the two coasts of the United States at a minimum and develop an immense traffic between the Atlantic and Gulf ports and those of California, Oregon, and Washington. It will improve to the largest degree the possibilities of trade between the United States and the West or Pacific Coast of the twelve Latin-American countries reaching with vast potential resources for 8,000 miles from Mexico to Chile. It will bring to the ports of the United States and Latin-America vessels of every flag, providing them with abundant shipping facilities and adding greatly to their prosperity. It will inaugurate a new commerce between the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts of the United States and the ports of Asia and Australia, which otherwise would use the Suez Canal or not exist at all.

RELIGIOUS OUTLOOK IN MEXICO

The new president of the Republic of Mexico, Francis I. Madero, Jr., is not a Roman Catholic and does not, it is said, favor Catholics above other bodies. Before entering upon the revolution as leader he is known to have contributed money to Protestants in Mexico, and in one instance to have enabled American Methodists

in Mexico to secure some real estate at nominal cost. He is a Mason and devoted to it, and a liberal religious thinker.

Catholic leaders of Mexico held a national convention soon after the end of the armed difficulty in the field and the departure of President Diaz, with the aim of creating a Catholic party and of nominating a presidential candidate to represent it. Failing to find an available man in its own membership, the convention surprised Mexico by endorsing Madero. It is debated, however, that Madero gave no pledges, and that liberal, Mason, and supporter of the Protestant work, he is free to carry forward Mexico's movement toward absolute religious liberty, which has not yet been attained.

Protestant missionaries in Mexico condemn in strong language reports circulated in the United States to the effect that Mexicans are essentially in slavery, most of them, and guilty of sins against civilization such as slaves might commit. These missionaries say the people are poor, and that the recent agitation is toward democracy, and better improved land, commercial, and moral laws. No injustice is charged by Protestants against the dominant Church, but with President Madero and the new laws and new sentiment, it is to be a thing of the past, they believe.

The claim is made that 8,000,000 of the 10,000,000 people of Mexico are not touched in any way by the Catholic Church. Protestants therefore urge the claims of Mexico as a mission field having a right to expect American assistance. Methodists are in Mexico with 25,000 members, upon such invitation as it is believed was never given to an American body by any foreign field. A committee of native Mexicans, wholly upon their own initiative, went to New York and formally asked them to come into their country.

Aiming solely to reach with the Gospel Mexicans who are not now in any Church, Protestants of all American names are making plans to enlarge their work. They believe the Baptists and Episcopalians are already there in strongest numbers and best organized form. An Independent Presbyterian Church of Mexico has been created within recent years. It is said in several executive committees of the great Protestant missionary societies that their appropriations for work in Mexico will probably be much increased when their next annual budgets are made.

—Church News Service.





VII. Journalism and Humor*

Benjamin A. Heydrick, A. M.

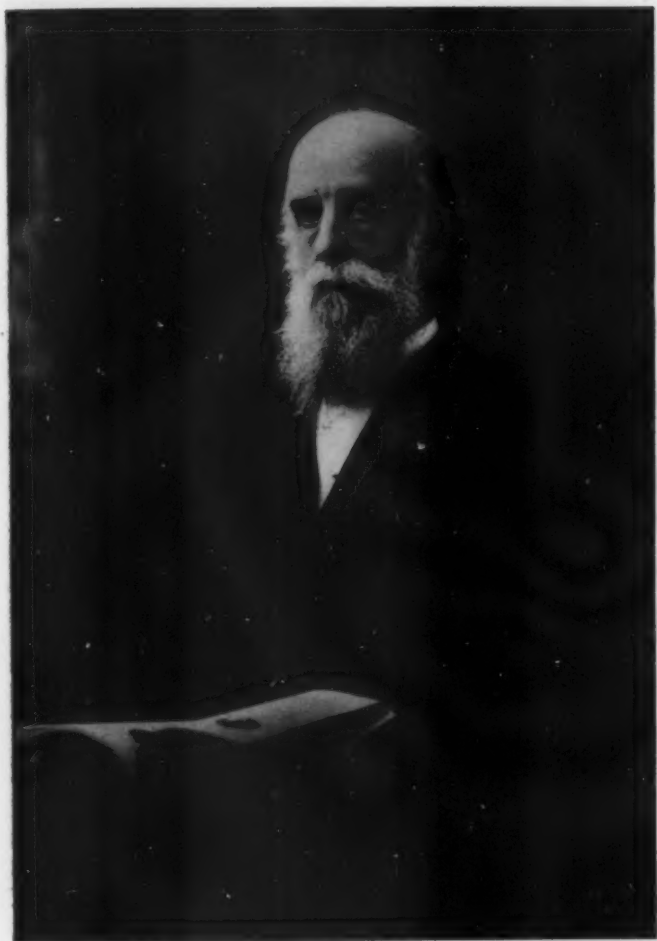
IF that visitor from the planet Mars whom we have been expecting for so long were actually to arrive it is probable that he would find nothing more interesting or more typical of our world than a daily newspaper. And supposing that he came from a planet where all life proceeded in the orderly fashion suggested by the regularity with which the canals appear and disappear, what impression would he gain from the morning paper? In staring headlines it proclaims that a train has been wrecked with the loss of a score of lives, that robbing and murder are matters of daily occurrence; that two nations are engaged in an inhuman war; that a great empire has been overthrown by a revolution. "What a world!" he would say; "When does the next airship leave for Mars?" And then we can imagine his American manager trying to reassure him by saying that some of these things happened on the other side of the world, and others are not as bad as the papers make out. "You can't believe more than half you see in the newspapers anyhow," he would add, and thus leave the Martian to hesitate between the conception of a world of crime and disaster, or a world of liars.

If he remained to fulfil his lecture engagements on our planet, he would come to realize that the newspaper, instead of giving a view of life as a whole, deals with a cer-

*See CHAUTAUQUAN for September and October, 1911, for instalments I and II, The Novel, November for III, the Short Story, December for IV, the Drama, January, 1912, for V, Poetry, February for VI, Essays.







Lyman Abbott, editor of *The Outlook*

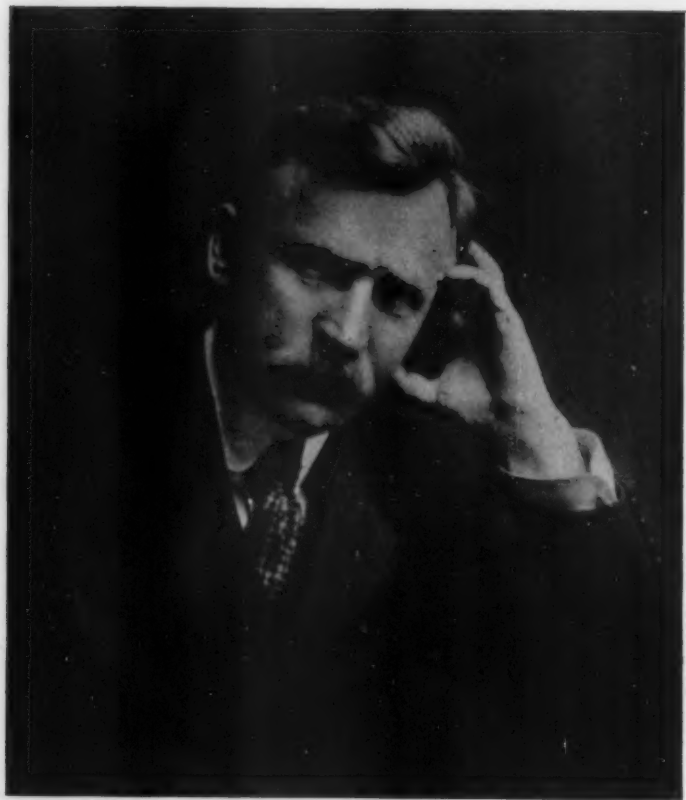


Joseph Pulitzer, of the *New York World*, one of the men who introduced sensational journalism

(From painting by Sargent)



Henry Watterson, of the *Louisville Courier-Journal*, last of the famous editorial writers of the old school



S. S. McClure, who developed a new type of magazine



tain class of happenings which it calls news, and these happenings are chiefly unusual or abnormal occurrences. If he were a wise man, then, he would learn to read the news upside down, so to speak. Of the revolution in China he would observe, "I see that this country has remained peacefully under one government for a long time." Of a robbery or a murder he would say, "I note that your people as a whole are most honest and law-abiding. In this city of a million people, only four crimes were committed yesterday." Of a report that a senator had been guilty of bribery he would say, "I see that you expect a high standard of men in public office, and that you are seldom disappointed." Thus he would grow wise in our ways, not only through what the newspapers printed but through what they did not print. And in this way must we interpret the picture of our life which journalism presents. When an editor gives prominence to a crime or a scandal, he does so relying upon a community whose moral sense will be shocked at such things. Let us remember, then, when we deplore the spotted and ugly image of life which we find in the newspaper that the very prominence given to such details is evidence of a social community whose life is clean and whose ideals are high. With this general premise let us examine more closely the periodical press of our country.

The first thing that impresses one is its magnitude. The daily papers number 2,472, the weeklies 16,269, the monthlies 2,769. Tri-weekly and quarterly publications bring the total up to 22,806. Of these one group of two hundred daily papers have a circulation of ten millions, while five magazines have a total circulation of over five millions. Of the others few are below a thousand; if we take two thousand as the average, it gives a total circulation of fifty-nine millions, or enough to provide a daily paper, a weekly, and a monthly magazine for every family in the United States.

And what is the nature of this reading matter which we

devour so eagerly? Taking the newspaper first, the daily paper of to-day is the result of an evolution. The early journals in America and elsewhere were sadly lacking in news. They published such as came in their way through gossip in a tavern or conversation with the captain of a sailing packet, but they made no attempt to establish channels of news through which they might obtain the earliest intelligence of important affairs. James Gordon Bennett the elder, founder of the *New York Herald*, first developed newsgathering as a great department of journalism. During the Mexican War his special service, by telegraph and post riders, brought news of military movements to the public even before the government at Washington had it. The special field correspondent, the exclusive telegraph wire, the chartered dispatch boat, the reporter at the police station, the regular correspondent in all news centers—all these things, so important in our journalism, we owe to Bennett.

The second important current of influence was the development of the editorial. Horace Greeley, more than any other man, made the editorial page a power. Gifted with a marvellous memory, a wide knowledge of public affairs, and a pen that he could wield like a bludgeon, he built up a tremendous influence for the *New York Tribune* through this power alone. The third great name in the development of journalism is that of Charles A. Dana. He saw that in the news columns there was as much chance for artistic writing as in the editorials. To him an item of news was a "story," as it is called in newspaper offices today. Now anyone who has tried to repeat an anecdote knows that the effect of a story is partly in the incidents, and much more in the manner of telling them. So the artfully-told news story, with its climax as effective as the climax in a play; the story with an unexpected slant of humor or of pathos that gives the effect of literature; the headline that crisply states the substance of a column, or perhaps interprets the whole as with a flash—these things we

owe to him of whom Eugene Field said he needed no other epitaph than:

Here sleeps the man who run

That best 'nd brightest paper, the Noo York Sun.

The *Sun*, now passed from the control of the Dana family, has changed its style materially, but for three decades it was the light to newspaper men all over the country, and has wrought a permanent change in journalistic style.

The fourth current was given by two men, Joseph Pulitzer and W. R. Hearst, who introduced sensational journalism. The faults of this are but too evident: its exaggeration, its publication of details of private life, its exploiting of crime and scandal. But sensational journalism has some things to its credit. Other papers were content to print news as it happened; the sensational journal made news. One paper took up adulterated food in grocery stores. When it began its campaign, of five hundred samples purchased, ninety-six per cent were dangerously adulterated. After the campaign, only nine per cent were found to be adulterated. The abuses in more than one state institution have been remedied after a sensational exposure. The fight of the people against a gas company or a street railway has more than once been won by the aid of a "yellow" journal.

These four currents, the development of news-gathering, the power of the editorial, the artistic telling of news, and the striving after sensationalism at any cost, have influenced in some degree the whole of our daily press. And what is the newspaper as moulded by these influences? Its contents may be considered under three heads: news matter, editorials, and advertisements. The news matter has already been commented upon. Much of it is sensational, much merely trivial, such as the society news and "personal mention," and that part which attempts criticism, such as the literary and dramatic columns, is apt to be mere advertising matter thinly disguised. The whole effect lacks dignity, and seriousness, and good taste.

The responsibility for this lies not solely with the editor or the publisher. His aim is to please the public, and he follows the tastes of that public more closely than most people realize. In the office of one great newspaper, daily reports are received from all over the city by sections. If in the financial district a number of new readers bought the paper yesterday, or if in a residential district the sales dropped off, both facts are known and must be explained, for circulation is the very breath of life to a newspaper. If, then, the newspaper as a whole is lacking in dignity, in seriousness, and in good taste, we may fairly infer that the great mass of its readers is indifferent to these things. As in politics, in the long run a city gets as good government as it deserves, so in journalism the readers of any paper, taken as a whole, get about as good a journal as they deserve.

But if the news columns are not particularly satisfactory, the editorial page should restore the balance. Here we may expect to find calm, dispassionate minds weighing passing events, selecting those of real importance, and pointing out their significance. Do we find these things? How many of us are in the habit of looking to the editorial page for guidance? How many of us read that page first? How many of us read it at all? Note the newspaper readers in a street car, and see what page they are perusing. The news columns, the sporting page, the financial page, the woman's page, even the advertisements have more readers than the editorials. The publisher himself tacitly admits the relative lack of importance of the editorial page by burying it in the middle of the paper. When Mr. Hearst wanted to make people read editorials, he placed them on the outside of the paper, and set them in black type with large headlines.

The editorial page, in theory the most important part of the paper, in fact has waned in power to such an extent that it is no longer a significant force in moulding public opinion. There are several causes for this. For one thing,

it has become an impersonal utterance. The New York farmer of a generation ago unfolded his *Tribune* with the remark "Well, let's see what old Horace has to say this week." The dominating power of a great personality was felt by every reader. Who knows by whom the *Tribune* editorials are written now? Who cares? Where are the great editorial writers of to-day, the men who succeeded Greeley and Dana and Grady and Murat Halstead? There is Henry Watterson,—last of the old school,—and Arthur Brisbane,—latest of the new; are there any others who can be said to have a national or even state-wide reputation? We have twice as many papers as we had a generation ago, and not half as many noted editors. The men who write the editorials on our great papers are mere employés; the proprietor dictates the policy of the paper, they write what they are told. It follows that their work, excellent as it may be in quality, is often lacking in the sincerity which comes only with strong conviction. It is said that many editorials upholding the rights of capital are written by men who are rank Socialists. It may be so, but such writing will not convince. It is apt to be perfunctory, or at least colorless. Do we not feel this in much of the editorial writing of to-day? The newspaper proprietor is not to be blamed too severely: he knows that a vigorous attack upon anything is apt to cause trouble in most unexpected quarters. As the editor of a Kansas paper once remarked, "We have been in the newspaper business twenty years, and we have come to the conclusion that the only thing that can safely be attacked is the man-eating shark." Let us imagine again our Martian looking over our newspaper and saying: "I observe that you have certain men whose duty it is to write the news, and others who interpret it. These editors must be very wise men and are, no doubt, highly paid?"

"Well, no, the most highly paid man on a newspaper is the advertising manager."

"Indeed. But of course the editors come next?"

"No, the special correspondents come next."

"And then the wise men?"

"No, the best reporters are better paid than the editors."

"Indeed. Then I marvel that any wise men should be found to write your editorials."

This waning of the importance of the editorial page can best be understood after a discussion of the next feature of the newspaper, the advertising columns.

If one were to ask the question: What is the purpose of a newspaper? the answer would be, nine times in ten, "To print the news." And nine times in ten the answer would be wrong. The purpose of a newspaper is to make money for its owner. There may be other purposes, one or another of which may modify its policy for a time, but this motive, in most cases, is the determining one. Now the income of a newspaper is obtained partly from sales, partly from advertising. The ratio which these two bear is not generally understood. When you buy a twenty-page newspaper for a cent, you are scarcely paying the cost of the white paper. All the rest—the telegraphic tolls, the salaries of reporters and editors, the cost of type-setting and printing, and distribution, is paid by the advertiser. To take a concrete illustration, the *New York Times* has a circulation of 175,000 copies. At one cent a copy, that means \$1,750 a day. But the newsdealer must have his profit; he buys the papers at sixty cents per hundred, so that the paper receives \$1,050. Now the *Times* publishes about eighty columns of advertising, which at regular rates amounts to something over \$6,000. That means that for every dollar the newspaper receives from its readers, it receives six from its advertisers. Now from this certain important consequences result. The interests of readers and advertisers are not always identical. In Boston, for example, an elevator fell in a department store, killing one of the passengers. That was news, important news to the shoppers of Boston, yet not a Boston paper published it. In Philadelphia during the street-car strike, there were days when mobs were stoning cars and injuring passengers, yet the

department stores, fearing the loss of their business, suppressed this news so effectively that the people of Philadelphia had to buy New York papers to learn the truth.

Nor is the stifling of news the only way in which advertisers exert their power. They may procure the insertion of news matter favorable to their interests, they may even modify the editorial page, if not control it. It is true that there are notable instances where such attempts to influence newspapers have failed entirely; it is also true that some newspapers seek such bargains. Not long ago it was reported that a certain metropolitan daily quietly offered that for a full-page advertisement they would throw in an editorial by their leading writer.

Do you object to this? What have you to say, when you are paying one cent, and the advertiser a thousand dollars? The moral of it all is that daily journalism has become thoroughly commercialized; making a newspaper is no longer a profession but a business; its aim is not to inform and instruct but to pay dividends.

Let us examine this advertising more closely. It is seen in its fullest development in the Sunday newspaper. Taking the current issue of one of these, we may study its advertising by assuming that the reader will respond to it, and inquire how such response will affect him. One group of advertisements includes the announcements of dry-goods stores and other firms offering standard commodities. These we may class as favorable to the reader, informing him where he can satisfy actual wants. A second group of advertising proclaims the merits of various brands of beer and whiskey. The effect of an increased consumption of these articles would certainly be harmful to the consumer. A third is the patent-medicine advertising, with its promises of impossible cures. The sales-manager of a widely-known "cure" for baldness has not a hair on his head. That many of these remedies contain a high per cent of alcohol, and that others contain dangerous drugs in large quantities, puts this whole class of advertising under grave suspicion.

In a fourth group we find what may be called petty deception, such as the advertisements of clairvoyants, fortune tellers, and the like. Yet as these clairvoyants often advise their clients to invest in worthless schemes, and share in the money thus gained, the petty deception quickly passes into the larger one, so this advertising must be classed as fraudulent. In the fifth group are the out-and-out swindlers. They begin with so-called "loan sharks," who advertise loans on long terms, "no security, no publicity, all strictly confidential." How they operate has been shown in New York City recently. One man who had borrowed \$40, paid back over \$120, and still owed more than \$60! By actual testimony they charged interest at the rate of 300 per cent. Operating on a larger scale are the concerns which sell stock in some worthless mining or industrial venture. Orange groves in Florida, rubber plantations in Mexico, oil wells in California, silver mines in Canada, all have been used as lures to persuade people that a dollar would grow into ten or twenty if you only planted it firmly in another man's pocket. One such promoter took a whole floor in a prominent business building for his offices, and bought advertising space by the half page. He is now in the penitentiary.

What of the newspaper's responsibility for all this? When it accepts an advertisement knowing that its purpose is to defraud its readers, is it not a party to the dishonesty? It is but fair to say that some newspapers have a different standard, refusing to print doubtful and dishonest advertising. But such papers are the exception.

In this hasty view of journalism, many things have been omitted. The enterprise of our journalists is everywhere acknowledged; the agencies for gathering news, such as the Associated Press, which collects news from everywhere and supplies it to hundreds of papers, are marvellously complete; the reports of news, considering the rapidity with which they must be prepared, are accurate and truthful to a high degree; the reporters themselves, many of them men

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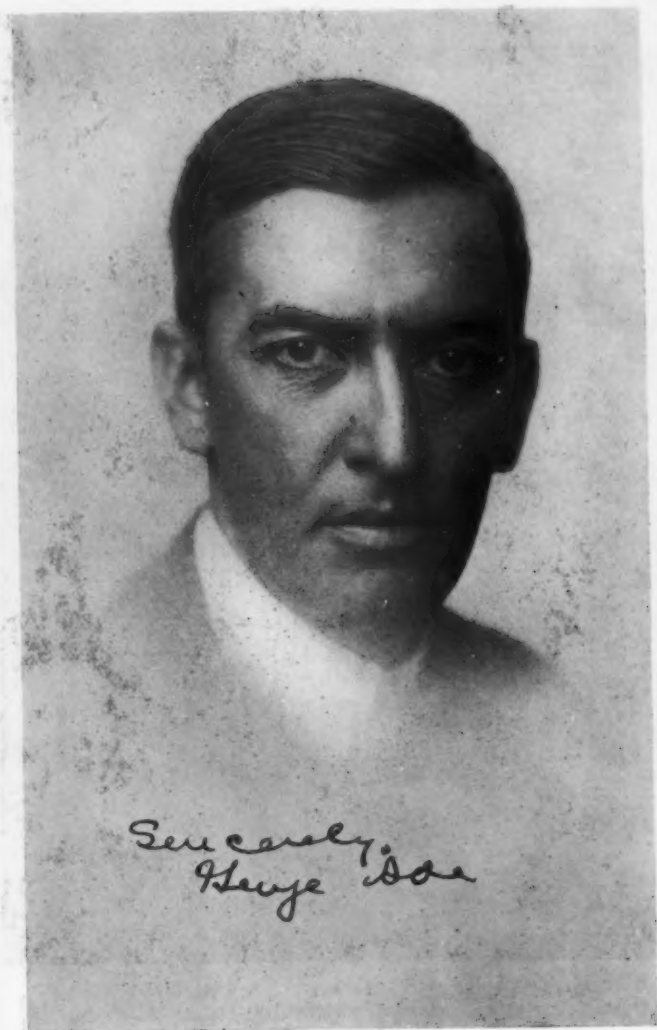
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Norman Hapgood, editor of *Collier's Weekly*, a journal that is aggressive and progressive



Finley Peter Dunne, creator of "Mr. Dooley"
(*Photograph by Davis and Eickemeyer*)



George Ade, teller of "Fables in Slang"



Walt Mason of the *Emporia Gazette*, whose verses reach ten million readers daily





with college training, write clear, vivid accounts that are often real literature. In fact the news columns of our papers have improved as the editorial columns have fallen off. And not less important is the part that newspapers have taken in advancing public causes. The story of how the Tweed ring was overthrown by the *New York Times* is a matter of history. More recent is the work of another paper in securing the reduction of the gas rate from one dollar to eighty cents. The paper not only gave the weight of its news and editorial columns to the cause, but engaged lawyers to push trial cases through court after court, until after a fight of years it won the victory. It is true that the gas company was not an advertiser; it is true again that this campaign strengthened the hold of the paper upon its readers, and gained many new ones, so that the business office was well satisfied with the result. The same paper began a crusade against race-track gambling, but suddenly stopped. One of the heavy advertisers in the paper, it came out later, was the owner of a race track. So the taint of commercialism is often to be found even when the newspaper appears to be the unselfish champion of the people's cause.

Financial considerations are not the only thing that may warp the attitude of a newspaper. Sometimes political influence controls a paper, sometimes the personal ambition of the owner, and to this must be added minor social and personal considerations. In some offices there are actual lists of persons who are always to be favorably mentioned, and others who are not to be mentioned at all. Thus in many ways the paper comes to present an imperfect, even a distorted image of events.

At this point some defender of our newspapers may interrupt with the remark: "Well, suppose our newspapers aren't perfect, is there anything better in any other country? Is there anything as good?" It is a fair question. To answer it in part, a study was made of four journals, each

among the best of its kind: the *New York Times*, the *London Times*, the *Vossische Zeitung* of Berlin, and *Le Journal* of Paris. The table below shows the relative size of each paper, and the amount of space devoted respectively to news, editorial matter and advertising.

	Total Pages	Total Cols.	No. of columns devoted to		
			News	Editorial	Advt.
New York Times	22	154	70	4	80
London Times	22	132	93	3	36
Vossische Zeitung	40	120	46	1½	72½
Le Journal	10	60	30	2	28

The comparison shows that in size London and New York papers are about equal; the *London Times* has fewer columns, but they are wider than in American papers. The Berlin paper has more pages, but they are a third smaller, so that the amount printed is about the same. The Paris journals are about half as large as ours. It should be said that in no other country is there anything like our swollen Sunday editions. In the relative space given to news and advertising the difference is marked. The *New York Times* divides its columns about equally, eighty of one hundred and fifty-four being given to advertising. The *London Times* gives only about one-fourth of its space to advertising. This is explained by the fact that it charges six cents a copy, so that the reader pays a large share of the cost of the paper. In other London papers which sell at one cent, the advertising is equal to ours. In Berlin and Paris, the ratio of news to advertising is about the same as in New York. So if journalism is commercialized in the United States it appears to be equally commercialized in other countries.

	Politics	Scandal	Society Gossip	Casualties	War	Crime	Finance	Religion	Art	Drama	Music	Sporting News
New York Times..	7	1	4	1	1	4	5	1	1	2	1	3
London Times	10	0	2	1	2	2	10	2	0	1	1	4
Vossische Zeitung ..	7	0	0	1	5	0	7	1	1	2	1	1
Le Journal	9	1	5	3	5	7	2	0	0	1	1	1

A second analysis, made to determine the kind of news each paper emphasized, as indicated by placing it at the top of the column with a large heading, is tabulated on the preceding page.

This comparison shows several interesting things. Foreign journals give even more space to politics than do our own; in society news, the Paris paper stands first, as it does in prominence given to casualties and crime. Of financial news London papers print most, London being the financial center of the world. Paris does not consider religion particularly important; with the English, sporting news stands next to finance and politics.

Now there is nothing in this showing to be ashamed of, nor, if we carry the examination into the advertising columns, is the result unfavorable. The Paris paper advertises boldly "Certain Methods of Winning on the Stock Exchange," fortune-tellers and quacks announce themselves, and one remembers that at the time of the collapse of the French Panama Canal company it came out that the leading newspapers had received large sums of money, not in pay for advertising but as a direct bribe. The *London Times* is, of course, as respectable as a bishop, but the cheaper London papers publish freely the advertisements of stock-swindling schemes. In one important field, however, the daily press of England and the continent is superior to ours: the department of criticism. The reviews of new books, the musical and dramatic departments, are written by men of eminence, and their articles have at once a seriousness of matter and a finish of style that is rare in our journals.

Comparing again on the basis of the number of newspapers published in the various countries we have:

United States	22,806
Great Britain	9,500
Germany	8,049
France	6,681

If we compare this with the respective population

of these countries, we find that in the United States there is in round numbers, a newspaper to every 4,100 of population; in Great Britain, one for every 4,700; in Germany, one for every 7,800; in France, one for every 5,900. In respect to the numbers of papers published, we lead all other countries, both absolutely and relative to population.

In speaking of our newspapers we noted the gradual decline in the importance of the editorial page, a decline which has accompanied the increasing proportion of space given to advertising. Gradually people are coming to realize that our journals are seldom the unselfish champions of the common good that they assume to be.

But side by side with this loss of confidence in the newspaper has grown up an increasing dependence upon another class of periodicals, the weekly and monthly magazines. These, like the newspapers, derive their revenue far more from advertising than from subscriptions, and yet they are more independent of advertising influence. For example, a city newspaper could not be published long if it were deprived of the advertising of the dry-goods stores. Their influence, if they choose to use it, is therefore very great. But a magazine could give up a whole class of advertising and still make money. Nay, it has done this very thing. The advertisements of fraudulent stock-selling schemes, once occupying pages and pages, have disappeared from all the better magazines; patent medicine advertising, which paid princely sums, has gone also. The leading magazines have "cleaned house" rapidly in recent years. Not content with this, some of the more influential, such as *Collier's* and the *Ladies' Home Journal* started a vigorous crusade against patent-medicine advertising, which has even led some of the newspapers to drop this class of matter.

Further, the magazines are more free from political bias. You will find a magazine urging the election of a Republican in New York and a Democrat in Ohio, perhaps in the same issue, with equal zeal and sincerity. Such

journals stand for good government; the newspapers stand for a party, or sometimes a mere faction within a party.

As a result of this independence, both political and financial, these journals have more freedom in printing the news than a daily paper. For example the famous sugar fraud cases were on trial in New York City. A corporation worth hundreds of millions was accused of defrauding the government, and of doing it by the same disgraceful trick with which a corner grocer cheats his poor customers—by the use of false scales. The frauds had gone on for years and amounted to millions of dollars. How was this big news item handled by the press of New York City? Some quietly ignored it, some printed a few paragraphs, which gave no adequate idea of the extent or the nature of the fraud. The *Outlook* made it the chief feature of several issues, with illustration and editorial comment.

The editorial pages of these journals are on a different plane from those of the daily newspaper. It is not only that they are more carefully written, and with fuller information, that would follow from the fact that more time is allowed, but they are different in spirit. The so-called "progressive" movement in the Republican party was taken up by journals like *Collier's* while the newspapers were making jokes about it. In such ways as this the weekly and monthly journals have undertaken the work of really guiding public opinion which the daily papers have almost ceased to perform.

In the monthly magazines the most evident fact is the great increase in number in recent years. Twenty years ago there were *Harper's* and *Scribner's*, the *Century*, and the *Atlantic* and that was practically all. The cheapest of these was twenty-five cents, the others were thirty-five. Then at about the same time Frank A. Munsey and John Brisbin Walker saw that there was a chance for a magazine that would reach, not the cultivated few, but the reading

many. The result was the first ten-cent magazines: *Munsey's* and the *Cosmopolitan*. One sought to attract readers by its fiction, the other by journalistic features, and by profuse illustration, being the first magazine to use color printing. Both were successful. Then came S. S. McClure with a new idea. He believed that the people were interested quite as much in fact as in fiction, and planned his magazine accordingly. Biographies of Lincoln and Napoleon, accounts of scientific discoveries, investigations of political and social conditions by trained writers: such were the features which made *McClure's* a success. Some years later *Everybody's Magazine*, which had been jogging along peacefully in Philadelphia, came into the hands of John A. Thayer and Erman J. Ridgway. They secured Thomas W. Lawson to write his articles on "Frenzied Finance." The picturesque English in which Lawson told his story, his audacity in attacking the masters of capital in America, his successful pose as a champion of the common good, so caught the public fancy that the circulation of *Everybody's* ran up to a million copies. This was the beginning of the "muck-raking" type of magazine article, a term which has been applied indiscriminately to much excellent and fruitful work as well as to much that is merely sensational. These four currents of influence, the appeal to an intellectual middle class, the prominence given to illustration, the fact-story, the "muck-raking" type of article, are seen in all our popular magazines today, and have even modified some of the older and more dignified monthlies. Perhaps the most important of these is the "fact story." This may be political, as Lincoln Steffens's articles on "The Shame of the Cities;" it may be economic, as Miss Tarbell's "History of the Standard Oil Company;" it may be sociological, as Ray Stannard Baker's "Following the Color Line," a study of the negro population. In all the method is the same. A skilled writer undertakes the series, he reads widely, travels about the country in search of

material, interviews men best informed, and so prepares a series of articles that make not only interesting reading, but often a real contribution to knowledge.

Now this feature, so common with us, has no counterpart in English magazines. It would seem to show that a taste for serious reading is more widespread here than in England.

So our magazines, weekly and monthly, may serve to modify the unfavorable impression given by our newspapers. If the one suggests a nation busying itself with trifles, eager for gossip, morbid in its curiosity, unthinking, and easily deceived, the other suggests a great hunger for knowledge, a taste for good literature, an appreciation of art, a keen interest in the great social and economic problems that are the chief concern of the leaders of the world's thought to-day. The truth lies between these statements. The American at the lowest end of the scale is quite as bad—is worse—than the worst of our newspapers. The American at—we shall not say the top of the scale, for magazines whose circulation aggregates more than five millions cannot be said to appeal only to a select few—the American, then, of the middle class, must be credited with the qualities of our best journalism.

It remains to speak briefly of a class of writers who, almost from the beginning of our literature, have imparted to it a distinctive quality—our humorists. From the days of Franklin to those of Mark Twain we have been producing humor in sufficient quantities not only to satisfy a strong home demand, but to have a great deal for export. The balance of trade in this article is largely in our favor. It is of all degrees, from the "comic" supplement of the Sunday paper to the mellow philosophy of "Mr. Dooley." At its worst it is often irreverent, sometimes vulgar; at its best it is a genial satire upon our civilization, as truthful and as telling as a *Spectator* paper by Addison. The subject naturally connects itself with journalism, since most of our

humor appears in this form. No newspaper but has its funny column; smaller papers borrow their wit, larger ones keep a jester of their own. Thus Eugene Field had his column, "Sharps and Flats," in the *Chicago News*; while readers of the New York *Evening Mail* have learned to turn first to the column headed "Always in Good Humor," by F. P. Adams. Other writers, such as George Ade, George Fitch and Walt Mason, have their work syndicated so that it appears in hundreds of newspapers. Walt Mason's "Lineless Rhymes from Kansas" which are as wholesome in tone as they are certain to bring a smile, appear in two hundred daily newspapers with a combined circulation of ten million readers. George Ade's "Fables in Slang" hit off the foibles of the average American with a deftness of touch and an economy of material that suggest the art of the best short story writers. Peter Finley Dunne, the creator of "Mr. Dooley," has treated subjects of current interest with a humor and an insight that show him a philosopher in motley.

What are the characteristics of these writers who to-day hit the American sense of humor most surely? For one thing they are all something more than mere funny men. A bit of social satire, of homely philosophy, of keen interpretation, always lurks behind the smile. A fable of George Ade's is apt to provoke the comment "That's so," instead of "That's funny." And thus we have the paradox that our humorists prove us to be a serious people.

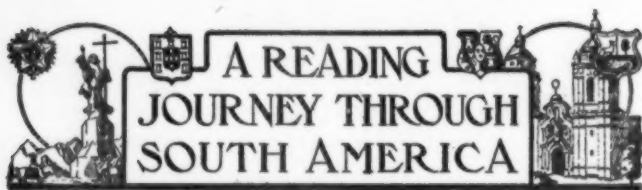
Again, this humor recognizes certain boundaries beyond which it does not pass. For one thing it is clean. When one remembers how the dialogue in modern French comedy usually has to be modified when produced on our stage, it is evident that our taste in this matter is different from theirs, and the difference is to our credit. For another thing, our best humorists are seldom irreverent. To American readers, the most brilliant English humorist of today, Bernard Shaw, often seems irreverent, at times a mocker

to whom nothing is sacred. Does this show that enough of the old Puritan spirit yet remains to make us resent the attempt to trifle with the deepest things?

It is curious that it should be from our humorists that we draw the conclusion that as a people we are serious, clean-minded, and God-fearing, yet such is the fair inference from the facts.

BOOKS OF AMERICAN HUMOR

- Adams, Franklin P.—Tobogganing on Parnassus.
 Ade, George—Fables in Slang; True Bills; People You Know; The Girl Proposition; In Pastures New; Forty Modern Fables; Breaking into Society.
 Bangs, John Kendrick—Houseboat on the Styx; Coffee and Re-partee; Three Weeks in Politics; The Idiot; Olympian Nights.
 Butler, Ellis P.—Pigs is Pigs.
 Burdette, Robert J.—The Rise and Fall of the Moustache.
 Burgess, Gelett—Are You a Bromide?; The Purple Cow, etc.
 Clemens, Samuel L. (Mark Twain)—Extracts from Adam's Diary; Eve's Diary; Captain Stormfield's Visit to Heaven; Editorial Wild Oats; The Man that Corrupted Hadleyburg.
 Colby, Frank M.—Constrained Attitudes.
 Dunne, Peter Finley—Mr. Dooley in Peace and War; Mr. Dooley in the Hearts of His Countrymen; Dissertations by Mr. Dooley; Mr. Dooley Says; Mr. Dooley's Opinions; Mr. Dooley's Philosophy; Observations by Mr. Dooley.
 Fitch, George—At Good Old Siwash.
 Flower, Elliott—Policeman Flynn.
 Hegan, Alice C.—Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch.
 Herford, Oliver—Cynic's Calendar; Rubaiyat of a Persian Kitten; The Bashful Earthquake; Child's Primer of Natural History; Little Book of Bores.
 Irwin, Wallace—Letters of a Japanese Schoolboy; Love Sonnets of a Hoodlum.
 Lorimer, George H.—Letters of a Self-made Merchant to His Son; Old Gorgon Graham.
 Mason, Walt.—Lineless Rhymes from Kansas.
 Masson, Thomas L.—A Corner in Women.
 Nye, Edgar W.—Comic History of the United States; A Guest at the Ludlow.
 Reed, Myrtle—Book of Clever Beasts.
 Sabin, Edwin L.—When You Were a Boy.
 Shute, Henry A.—Real Diary of a Real Boy; Farming It; Plupy, the Real Boy.
 Stockton, Frank R.—Rudder Grange; The Squirrel Inn; The House of Martha.
 Strunsky, Simeon—The Patient Observer.
 Wells, Carolyn—A Phenomenal Fauna.



VII. Chile*

Harry Weston VanDyke†

“CHILE,” which, by a curious coincidence, had about the same significance in the Inca language that our word “chilly” has in English, is the name that was originally given by the Incas to that part of the Pacific slope of the Andes which lies beyond the river Maule, the southern boundary of their great empire. At the time of the Spanish conquest, the first Governor and Captain-General, Pedro de Valdivia, dubbed it “Nueva Estremadura,” after his native province in Spain, and so called it in his official communications, yet not only did the Inca name cling to the country south of the Maule but soon it was popularly applied to that in the north as well, as far up as Peru. And so when, some years afterwards (says the historian Rosales), the Emperor Charles V. of Germany, who was also King of Spain, was negotiating the marriage of his son Philip with Mary, Queen of England, and was told that, being a sovereign in her own right, she would enter into such an alliance only with a reigning monarch, he caused Philip to be crowned King of Chile, and thus incidentally, in dis-

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This series began in THE CHAUTAUQUAN of September, 1911, with an article on “Discovery and Conquest,” which was followed in October by one on “Colonial Period and War of Independence,” in November by “Brazil,” and in December by “Argentina.” The January, 1912, issue held “Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia,” and the February, “Peru.”

This article should be read as preceding the article on Peru which appeared in the last issue.

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tinguishing that colony above his other American possessions, confirmed its original name, and Chile it has been called ever since.

The territory of the present republic consists of a strip of land of most extraordinary conformation lying between the main Cordillera of the Andes and the sea. It has an average width of less than 100 miles, yet stretches for nearly 3,000 miles from a point in the tropics considerably above the center of the continent, clear down to Cape Horn, crossing 38 degrees of latitude. A strip of the same length in North America would reach from Key West to northern Labrador, or, if measured along the Rocky Mountains, from Mexico to the Yukon in Alaska. Reckoned in square miles, it is larger than any country in Europe except Russia, though it has a population, according to the last census (1907), of only 3,254,451, less than that of the city and suburbs of Paris or of New York.

On ordinary maps this narrow Chilean half of the Andean region looks like a mere strip of coast traversed by a single range. As a consequence, it is not generally understood by those who have not visited the country that there is really here, as in Peru and Ecuador, a double formation, connected by transverse ridges in places but perfectly distinct, known as the Andes proper and the coast range or western Cordillera. Between the two systems is a vast plateau, called the central valley, which begins in the northern Province of Atacama, and, gradually decreasing in height, extends south for 700 miles, with an average width of from fifty to sixty miles, through the Province of Llanquihue, about two-thirds of the way down the coast, where it disappears with the coast range itself in the long series of groups of islands into which the shore line is broken up. From its culminating point back of Santiago, the main Cordillera also decreases in height towards the south, but, instead of disappearing with the coast range, extends throughout the whole length of the country, from Peru to the southernmost islands of the

Fuegian archipelago, forming the most magnificent background imaginable to the view from the sea.

In the northern section, between the Bolivian frontier and Coquimbo, there are more than thirty extinct or dormant volcanoes of great altitude—Toroni, 21,340 feet, about four miles high, Pular, 21,325 feet high, Iquima, 20,275 feet, Aucasquilucha, 20,260 feet, Llullaillaco, 20,253 feet, San José, 20,020 feet, and Socompa, 19,940 feet, and many others over 17,000 feet. Imagine these in contrast with Etna (10,875 feet) and Vesuvius, which is only 3,800 feet, not as high as the cones of some of them alone. South of the Province of Copaiabo, the main range itself develops a plateau formation that is crossed by several relatively low passes, such as the Portezuelo de Come Caballo (14,530 feet), Los Patos (11,700 feet), and, farther south, on a line with Valparaiso, the Uspallata Cumbre (12,795 feet). Although little used even now because of its extremely rugged character, Los Patos is associated with perhaps the most memorable event in the war of independence. There, in the execution of a strategic movement rivaling that of Hannibal in the Pyrenees and Napoleon's crossing of the Alps, the Liberator San Martín safely made his way through with his whole army in 1817—artillery, impedimenta and all—and, within five days, joined forces with the Chilean hero O'Higgins, surprised the royalist army awaiting him near the Cumbre below, fought the great battle of Chacabuco and entered Santiago in triumph.

But this lower Uspallata Pass, which has always been the principal means of land communication with Argentina, was destined to become famous in another way, because it was the place chosen as the most suitable for the route of the Chilean-Argentine transcontinental railroad, connection between the eastern and western sections of which was established in April, 1910, by completion of a tunnel under the Cumbre (top), two miles long and half a mile beneath, a work of the utmost importance, for, aside from the mat-

ter of comfort and saving of time, it has made it possible to go from one country to the other by the land route in winter, when the pass is covered with drifts and the deadly winds and snow storms are so likely to whirl down on the traveller at any time that few except the hardy mail-carriers ever dare attempt it. It is in this neighborhood that the mountains attain their greatest altitude. A little way to the north and visible from the Cumbre is the "Monarch of the Andes," Aconcagua, which, according to the record at the Harvard University observatory in Arequipa, Peru, is 24,760 feet (more than four miles and a half) high, the highest in the world, it is now regarded next to Mt. Everest in the Himalayas. In his interesting story of the ascent of Aconcagua, Sir Martin Conway, one of the very few who succeeded in accomplishing it, describes the view from a point near the lesser of the two summits.

"At last I heard a shout and looked up and saw Maquignaz a yard or two above my head," he says, "standing on the crest of the bed of snow that crowned the *arête*. In a moment I was beside him and Argentina lay at our feet. The southern snow face, delusively precipitous though actually as steep as snow can lie, dropped in a single fall to the glacier two miles below. To the right and left for over a mile there stretched, like the fine edge of an incurved blade, the sharp snow *arête* that reaches from the slightly lower southern summit to the northern. It forms the top edge of the great snow slope down which we were looking and is only visible from the Horcones valley side as a delicate silver crest edging the rocks. At many points it overhung in big cornices, like frozen waves about to break.

"The day had thus far been fine, but clouds were now gathering in the east. Fearful lest the view might soon be blotted out, I took a few photographs before moving on. The view abroad from this point differed little from that which we finally obtained. To the south was Tupungato (22,408 feet), a majestic pile of snow, over which even more majestic clouds were presently to mount aloft. To the north was the still grander Mercedario (22,315 feet), beheld around the flank of the final rocks. In the west were the hills, dropping lower and lower to the Chilean shore, and then the purple ocean. To the northeast, like another ocean, lay the flat surface of the Argentine pampas. Elsewhere the Cordillera, in long parallel ridges running roughly north and south, stretched its great length along, crowding together into an inextricable tangle the distant peaks, partly hidden by the near summits, which alone interrupted the completeness of the panorama."

All the high peaks are of volcanic origin and those from Mercedario to Tupungato are precipitous and craggy and decked with great glaciers. The sky line is jagged like the walls of a ruined castle. The rocks below the snow are richly colored. There are palisades of dark reds and browns, slopes of purple streaked with yellow and other gorgeous combinations, and, down in the lower valleys, brilliant greens. The streams of melting snow pouring down the sides seem tinted with these varied colors; in some places they flow red, as with blood from the breast of a giant; the main branch of the Rio Mendoza above Cuevas, on the Argentine side seem pink, and, lower down, after mixing with the waters of its tributaries, a golden brown.

The next great division of the range is defined on the north by the Maipo Pass and Las Demas Pass on the south. Its principal heights are between 16,000 and 17,000 feet. From Las Demas on, few are over 10,000 feet, and, beyond Copahue, near the source of the Biobio river, the average is about 9,000. Beyond the volcano Tronador (the Thunderer), in the latitude of Lake Llanquihue, as far as Lake Buenos Aires, it consists of a series of Swiss-like mountains, still decreasing in height, but with an occasional high peak, such as Mt. San Valentín (12,720 feet), and glaciers growing ever larger and more numerous. San Valentín rises in the midst of an elevated ice field eighty miles long and thirty wide and sends down two great glacial streams, one to the south and the other into the San Rafael Lake, where the ice glides along the bottom until it breaks into fragments that drift away in the channel of Morelada. All these places can now be reached by railroad or steamer.

The long series of groups of islands beginning with Chiloé, about two-thirds of the way down the coast, is said to be nothing more than a partly submerged section of the Western Cordillera. Above the surface of the

water, for a distance of about eighty miles, they still have an average elevation of about 2,000 feet. Embraced in the Chonos Archipelago, between Chiloé and the Taytao Peninsular, are more than a thousand small islands, rocks and reefs, and then come the large islands of Wellington, Madre de Dios, Chatham, Hanover, Queen Adelaide, King William's Land, etc., each fringed by groups of little ones and all following the mainland in a graceful curve, and separated from it by the Messier, Sarmiento and Smyth Channels, which, together, extend for 360 miles, from the Penas Gulf to the Strait of Magellan. As the steamer glides through, at times so straight are they and such is the uniformity of the shore line on either side, one fancies one's self in a wide river in the interior of the continent; at others, when openings among the islands appear and the water stretches for miles towards the sea or far into the recesses of the Cordillera, it seems more like a great lake.

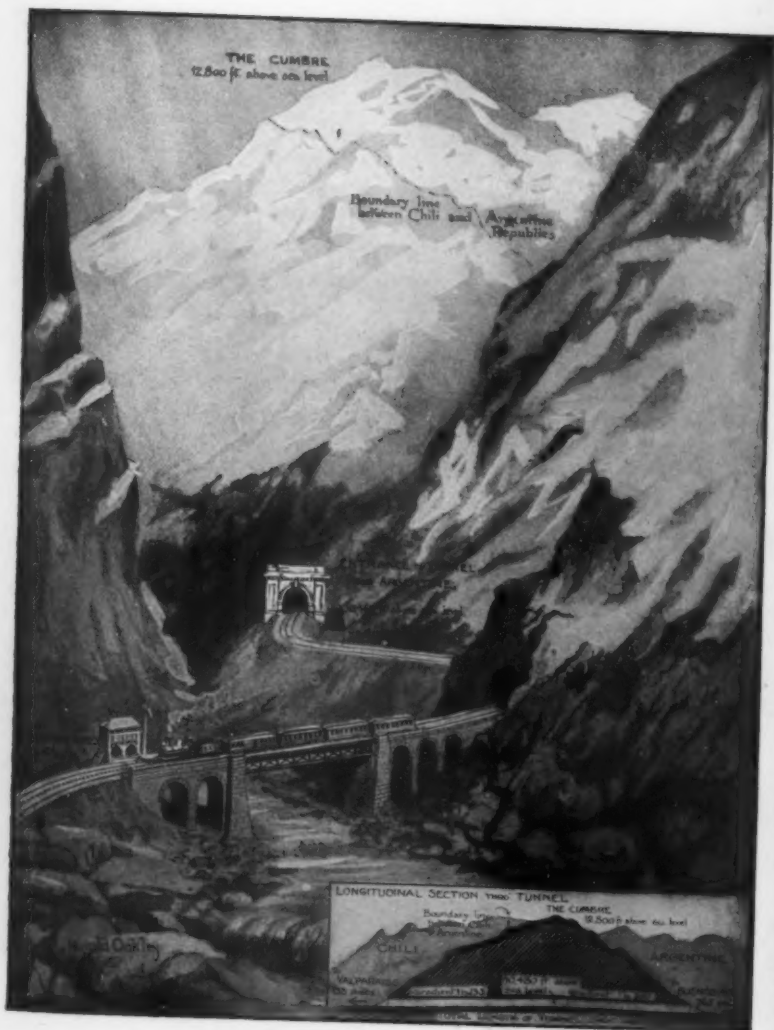
The fjord-like formations recall the more celebrated channel off the coast of Norway leading to the North Cape. Indeed, it is generally agreed by those who have seen both that there is little to choose between them, for, in both, the indentations and mountains of the coast and islands are similar in character; if there is less variety in the Chilean one, if the rain storms are more frequent, to compensate for it there is a much greater and more attractive wealth of vegetation. From the water's edge to a height of 1,400 or 1,500 feet, the slopes, and even the smaller islands, are covered with an unbroken mantle of beautiful, dense, green forest that presents an astonishing contrast, in this inhospitable region, to the bleak, grey rocks and bluish-tinted ice sheets above and the pure white snow caps on the summits beyond. In the country from Valdivia south to Smyth Channel, many of the trees, particularly in the ravines and sheltered places, are tall and shapely and their trunks and lower branches are incrustated with mosses and entwined with flowering creepers



Uspallata Pass over the mountains between Chile and Argentina



"Christ of the Andes"—Statue marking the boundary line between Chile and the Argentine Republic. This unique monument stands at an elevation of 14,450 feet above the sea



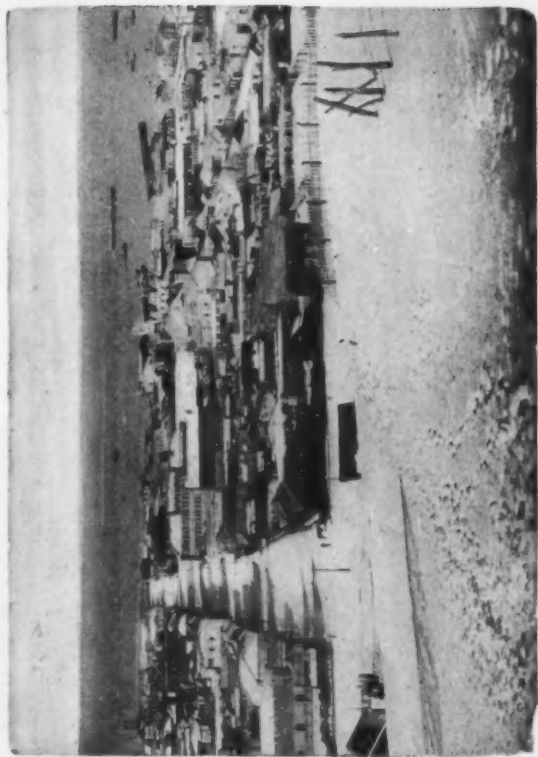
Trans-Andean Railroad



Wharf



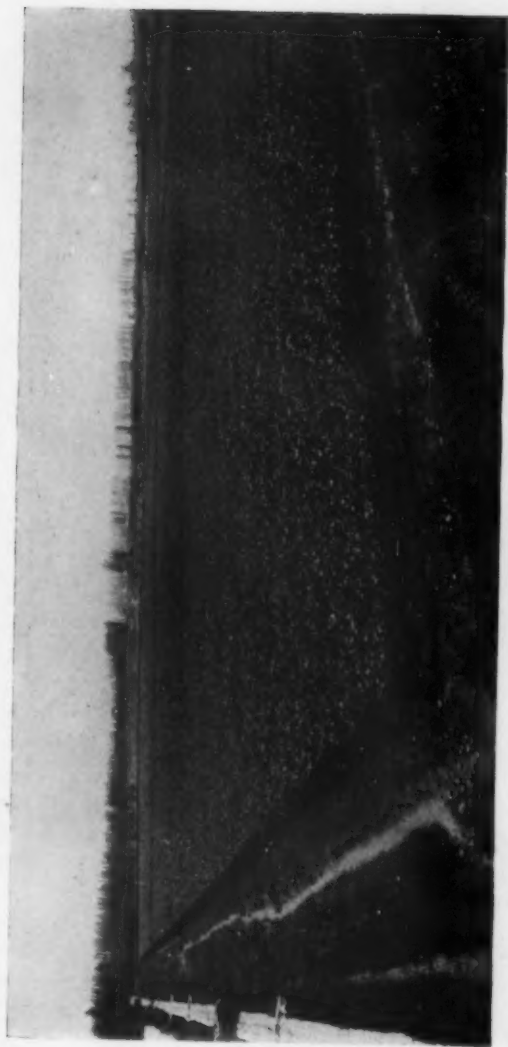
Private Residence
IN VALPARAISO, CHILE



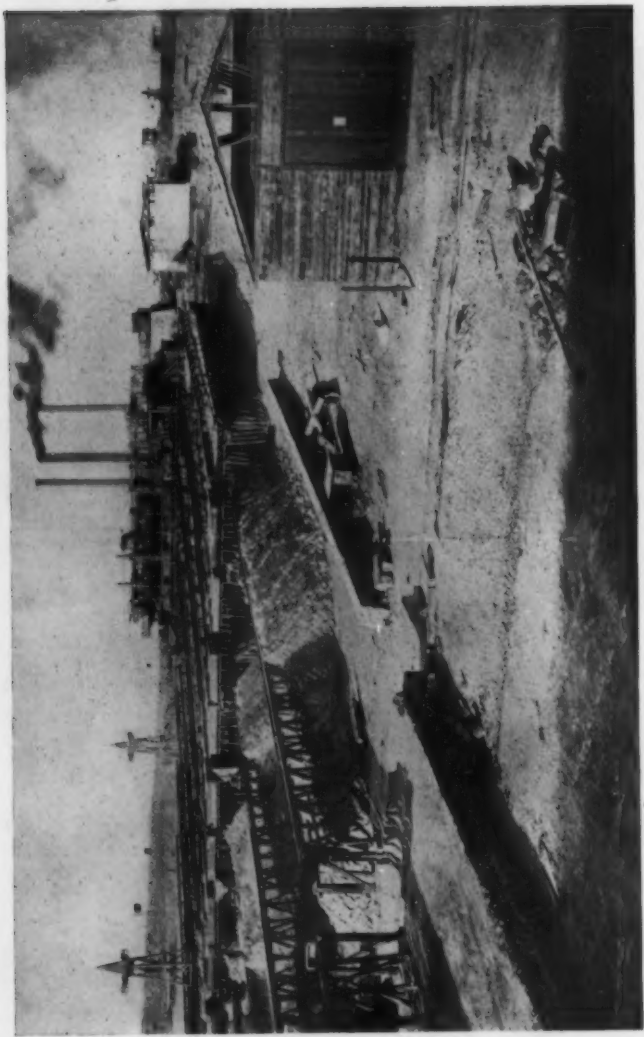
Punta Arenas, the southernmost city on the globe, the coaling port for steamers passing through the Strait of Magellan, and the leading port in southern Chile for the export of fur, wool and minerals



Teaching a Chilean girl to dance La Cueca



A Chilean Vineyard



Nitrate Works at Iquique, Chile





and vines, many with a sort of mistletoe that has clusters of dark red blossoms; one of the creepers, called angel's hair, is delicate and filmy and hangs from the branches like threads of lace, and there is an undergrowth of ferns and shrubs and bamboo. These last often shoot up as far as the tops of the trees and seem to mat them together so that they form arbors over the pathways between. Farther south and in the region of the Strait, these woods lose something of their mysterious beauty; here they are composed principally of antarctic beech, gnarled and bent by the winds, and the thicket-like undergrowth is sombre and forbidding.

Emerging from the channel, for the first time the steamer encounters heavy rollers, that come pounding in through the broad gateway to the Pacific, not far to the west. Here, even in summer, it is seldom that there is neither storm nor fog, but, when it is clear enough, one can see the tempest-torn promontory of Cape Pillar, at the end of Desolation Island, the southwestern portal of the Strait. Eastward the conditions improve; the water grows smooth again and the clouds are usually lifted above the lower mountain tops; the scenery grows still more impressive than in the channel—only it is solemnly impressive now—at least, so it strikes most travellers. The Strait is much wider; the steamer is far enough away from the shore to enable one to see above the shoulders of the mountains to their summits, yet not so far that the distance renders them too indistinct; the water is steel grey, the bases and buttresses of the mountains take on a shade of purple, the summits seem whiter than ever, and over all, except during the comparatively rare intervals when the sun shines, are leaden clouds. In the center of the Strait, where the continent proper comes to a wedge-shaped point known as Cape Forward, and up the eastern arm, only a few miles away, lies Punta Arenas, the southernmost city in the world.

In the jumble of ranges forming the transmagellan continuation of the great Cordillera of the Andes, the most important is that named after the scientist Charles Darwin, who was the first to explore it, on the long western arm of the Island of Tierra del Fuego. The highest and most conspicuous happens to be the nearest to this remarkable port, and, as no better idea of the region in general could be conveyed, it seems to me, I quote from the story of a visit to Mt. Sarmiento, made by Sir Martin Conway the same summer he climbed Aconcagua, rather than attempt a description myself. He says:

"The sun was shining quite hotly and the ice was almost dazzlingly brilliant. After scrambling with difficulty on the glacier and wandering about the moraine area, we returned towards the shore, finding an exit through the forest at a much narrower place. The air was cool, the sun bright; there were little puffs of breeze; it was the very perfection of a day for active open-air life. Yet the clouds still hung stationary on the summit of Sarmiento. We lay awhile on the shore beside the rippling waters; then rowed away in hopes of seeing our mountain's misty veil lifted if only for a moment. The long, late midsummer sunset was at hand. A tender pink light, far fainter than the rich radiance of the Alpine glow, lay upon the surface of the glacier and empurpled its crevasses; it permeated the mist aloft. The cruel rocks, incrustated with ice, and the roof of the final precipice, with its steep ridges and icy *couloirs*, were all that could be seen. The graceful, ice-rounded foundation rocks of this and all the other mountains around slope up to the cliff and jagged *arêtes* above and make each peak beautiful with contrasted forms, massive yet suave of outline beneath, splintered and aspiring above. In one direction we looked along the channel of our approach, in another, for twenty miles or so, along Cockburn Channel, with a fine range of snowy peaks beside it, prolonging Sarmiento's western range.

"The water was absolutely still; we floated with oars drawn in. Looking once more aloft, I found the mist grown thinner. The pink light crept higher and higher as the cloud dissolved. Suddenly—so suddenly that all who saw it cried out—far above this cloud, surprisingly, incredibly high, appeared a point of light like a glowing coal drawn from a furnace. The fiery glow crept down and down as though driving the mist away, till there stood before us, as it were, a mighty pillar of fire, with a wreath of mist around the base, and, down through all the wonderful pink wall and cataract of ice to the black forest and reflecting water. We had seen the final peak now—a tower of ice-crustured rock, utterly inaccessible from the western side. A little while later, the fair *couloir* had faded away, mists had gathered and night was coming on apace. We rowed away for the steamer, but had not gone very far before a faint silver point appeared above the mist where the glowing tower had stood. The cloud curtain

rolled slowly down again and all the summit crest was revealed, cold and pure. Then the southwest ridge appeared, and finally the entire mountain, like a pale ghost, illuminated by some unearthly light. A moment later the clouds rolled together once more and solid night came on; we hastened to the steamer for warmth, food and sleep."

No conception of the Chilean country as a whole, however, can be formed unless it is understood that it is naturally divided into zones, as characteristically dissimilar as the various grand divisions of the United States. For instance, there is this Magellan and Fuegian region, where, to the east of the mountain ranges, the great Argentine *pampa* extends clear down through Tierra del Fuego, and where, the climate being too rigorous for agriculture, the principal industry, and the only important one, aside from a small amount of lumbering and gold mining, is the raising of herds of cattle and sheep. With the exception of the ranchers and the ten or twelve thousand people of Punta Arenas, which is the only port of call in these parts, and is, therefore, the distributing and shipping point for all the enormous expanse of country roundabout, including the southern section of Argentine Patagonia, the inhabitants are of the lower order of Indians and live in the forests, supporting themselves by hunting and fishing, just as they did before they ever saw or heard of a white man.

Then there is the island, lake and forest region between Smyth Channel, say, and Valdivia. In the southern part, the principal industries are lumber and fisheries, but in the north, especially in the Province of Chiloé (both the island and mainland) and Llanquihue, there are also wheat and barley fields, and the fruit, dairy and cattle-raising industries rank ahead of the timber and fishing, though in Chiloé this last is one of the most important. The inhabitants are mostly immigrants and Indians of a better and far more amenable class than the races farther south; and here, throughout nearly the whole of the country, in the uplands as well as near the coast, is the towering *alerce* (the Chilean pine), often 200 feet high, sometimes 250, with

a superb white trunk, varying from ten to fifteen feet in diameter, according to height, the rival of the California giant redwoods, and here the *diñque*, that resembles the mighty German oak; and supplies wood for railroad cars, carriages, casks and ship-building, of wonderful toughness and durability. There are cypress, walnut, cedar, ash, beech and others excellent for general building and cabinet purposes, too, and other species of value for their barks.

Then, from Valdivia north through the Province of Coquimbo, comes the great central valley, which is excelled by few, if any, of the temperate agricultural regions of the world. It is here, of course, that the principal centers of population are located—Valparaiso, the most important seaport south of San Francisco, and Santiago, the capital, and the ports of Serena and Concepción. In this region all the cereals, fruits and vegetables are produced in abundance. There are immense vineyards and sugar-beet and tobacco plantations, stock and dairy farms, copper, silver and coal mines, and factories of almost every description; and north of Coquimbo are the desert provinces of Atacama, Antofagasta, Tarapacá and Tacna, where the rain so seldom falls that no useful vegetation can thrive except in a few places where irrigation is possible, yet which are the chief source of Chile's revenue and wealth. These constitute the fourth, or almost exclusively mineral zone, and, aside from their gold and silver and copper, contain the famous nitrate of soda beds, the only extensive deposit of the kind in the world, though here they are found thickly scattered over a strip 460 miles long, averaging about three miles in width. Every year more than 1,500,000 tons are exported to fertilize the fields and make the gunpowder of Europe and the United States, to say nothing of the iodine and other by-products extracted in the process of preparation.

Leaving La Paz and the bleak plateau, with its *llama* caravans and poncho-clad natives, and entering Chile by way of the railroad down the twelve thousand foot slope,

one comes to the end of the trip at this very port of Antofagasta, which lies basking in the tropical sun on a strip of coast at the foot of a relatively low tableland, 700 miles north of Valparaíso, in the heart of the rainless desert. It is a city, though, with a population of about 20,000, well laid out, with good broad streets and of very business-like appearance—a city that looks like one of our Western mining towns and impresses one at first glance with a more vigorous and ambitious civilization. There is a large *oficina*, as such plants are called, for the preparation of nitrate, steam tramcar lines, smelters for the treatment of copper and silver ores, long rows of barracks for the housing of the laborers, corrugated iron warehouses, crowds of ships in the offing taking on cargoes of nitrate and unloading supplies; yet there is a plaza and promenade and hotels, too, and most of the residences of the officers of the companies are decidedly attractive.

For this is still the gate of the highway to Bolivia through which most of her commodities come and her own products are sent out, and it is the distributing center for the province besides, where the land is so barren that the inhabitants are dependent on the outside world for almost everything. There was a time when even water had to be imported into the city itself—it used to be said that they drank champagne because water was too expensive—but not long ago a conduit was constructed and now it is piped from the mountains, 250 miles away; and they have brought soil from the south with which to make gardens to adorn their plaza and promenade and the grounds near the club where the Britishers have their tennis courts and inevitable five o'clock teas. It is said that of the \$127,000,000 invested in the hundred or more *oficinas* generally throughout the region, \$53,500,000 are English, \$52,500,000 Chilean and the rest German; so here, of course, as in the greater port of Iquique in Tarapacá, a large proportion of the people, other than the laboring class, is English, and certain it is that the blonde, clean-cut Anglo-Saxon is very much in evidence,

both in town and out among the plants lining the railroad.

As Antofagasta is not connected with Valparaíso by railroad, the only practicable way of getting there is by steamer. This is much to be regretted, because, although the accommodations are comfortable enough, the progress is slower and what is to be seen along the coast, even the view of the great cordilleras, is nowhere near as interesting and attractive as in the central valley. Except at widely separated intervals, where the hills part at the mouths of the few shallow rivers or about the bays, the shore all the way down is dominated by steep, rocky cliffs, so high as to conceal the country behind. The only signs of life are where little ports, usually mere clusters of tin-roofed huts, are huddled on the beach at the bases of the bluffs, sometimes with a railroad climbing up the cliffs and back into the mining country beyond. Occasionally there is a city, such as Serena; but, unless one has plenty of time to spare, these do not repay a stopover until the next boat.

Valparaíso is built at the foot of a mountain ridge, divided by deep ravines into nineteen separate *cerros*, or hills, that slope down to a wide bay, opening into the sea on the north. Encircling the beach is an embankment of masonry, called the Malecón, which considerably broadens the water front and serves as a protection—though there have been occasions when it has not proven an effective one—from the heavy seas driven in by the “northers” during the two stormy months of the winter. The principal streets run parallel with the embankment and increase in number in the section where the *cerros* recede, diminishing again where they extend almost to the water’s edge. In one section, way around near the end, there is scarcely room enough for the tracks of the railroad that connects the city with its beautiful, aristocratic suburb, Viña del Mar. Many have their homes on the terraced sides and tops of the *cerros*, which are connected one with another by handsome bridges and made accessible from the streets below by inclined railways and elevators, as in certain sections of Cincinnati, so

that, viewed from the entrance to the bay, the city has the appearance of a huge amphitheater.

In a sketch of Chile compiled by the International Bureau of American republics, dated June 1909, the population is given as 200,000, but, as Arthur Ruhl observes in his *The Other Americans*:

"As the principal port of the west coast, and, in a way, the 'downtown' for the capital and the rest of Chile, Valparaiso seems more important than its mere population would indicate, and, although the newspapers and street signs are in Spanish and Spanish is the language generally spoken, it has little of the look of the old Spanish-American town."

Here too a very large element of the population is foreign. The Germans have the largest colony and the Italians and French are said to come next in order. These are mostly retail merchants of the better class; but it is here also that the men live who design and control the vast nitrate and mining enterprises in the north and the capitalists who finance the big industrial projects and railway development, the exporters and importers, bankers, brokers and insurance men, and among these the ten or twelve thousand English in the city predominate. English is spoken by the better educated class of Chileans as well as Spanish and French. The French, of course, have a monopoly of the retail trade having to do with fashionable apparel and luxuries, for Paris has always been the Mecca of the smart set here and in Santiago just as it has in Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires.

The buildings are modern—many of them new, since the city had to be largely rebuilt after the great earthquake in 1906, which was relatively as disastrous here as the one in San Francisco of the same year was to our principal Pacific port. The main business street, the Calle Victoria, which parallels the Malecon almost the entire length, presents an array of government buildings, banks, hotels, theaters, cafés, retail shops and office buildings larger and more substantial and elaborate than can be seen almost anywhere in cities of that size. The shops, which are of good size, leave nothing to be desired in the way of assort-

ment and quality of their stocks. There are trolley cars and arc lights in the streets, libraries, beautiful parks and plazas where they have public band concerts in the evenings, attractive residence districts, and near by, at Viña del Mar, there are sea bathing, tennis, racing, football, golf, country clubs, and a first class hotel for those who are not so fortunate as to have their own houses there. Only about sixty miles away (though it is more than twice as far by the railroad, which has to make a detour to get through the coast range) is the capital, Santiago, the real metropolis of the country.

Says Marie Robinson Wright (in her *Republic of Chile*):

"Santiago, the Andean city of the snow white crown, is unique in the charm of her unconventional beauty and the rugged splendor of her surroundings. Like a queen in the giant castle that nature has given her, with walls of the imperishable granites of the Cordilleras and towers reaching to the skies, she seems created for the homage of those whose gaze upon her. Her face is toward the sunset, as if in expectation of the high destiny that awaits this land of promise in the golden west of South America; and, from the snowy peaks behind her, marked clear against the blue sky, to the farthest limit westward, bordered by the boundless Pacific, there is no alien territory to limit the prospect of her fair domain. Her jewels, rare and resplendent, are the rich emerald of the Andean valleys, the matchless sapphire of Andean skies, the pure diamonds of Andean streams. Her royal robes are woven of the marvellous purple and gold of Andean sunsets, unrivalled in brilliancy, and imparting to her gracious beauty the glow of infinite loveliness, as they envelop her utterly, catching even the snowy peaks of her sovereign diadem in their magic folds."

Nor is this in the least overdrawn. No city could be more delightfully situated. It lies in the great central valley, on a plateau 1,740 feet above the level of the sea, forty miles long and about twenty wide, where the climate is as perfect as that in the Pyrenees, and is almost completely enclosed by a magnificent border of mountains. Luzerne and other show places in Switzerland are mere miniatures compared with it. The level portion of the ground is highly cultivated with all sorts of fruits and crops that grow in the temperate zone and is divided into large *haciendas* or plantations, nearly all with fine cattle and horse-breeding

farms attached and princely mansions, as of feudal lords, and there are splendid avenues of giant eucalyptus along the roads and separating the fields. In the heart of the city itself is a hill called El Cerro de Santa Lucia that rises to a height of 300 feet and is half as big around as Central Park in New York, a spot which such a connoisseur as William E. Curtis declares (in his *Between the Andes and the Ocean*) he has "long held to be the prettiest place in the world." The summit is reached by a number of winding driveways and walks, lined with trees, flowering shrubs and overhanging vines and flanked by battlemented walls and towers, picturesque beyond description; there are terraces ornamented with flower beds and fountains, and grottos, balconies and rustic seats; all along at intervals, are kiosks for music and refreshments; half way up is a theater where light opera and vaudeville performances are given both afternoons and evenings; a little farther on is a restaurant that is a favorite resort for breakfasting and dining out, and, best of all, from the summit there is a glorious view of the whole country around.

Across the city from Santa Lucia to the Central Railway depot, an avenue called the Alameda de las Delicias extends for a distance of three miles. It is 350 feet wide and all down the center is a beautiful park containing statues and monuments to Chile's heroes—it is her hall of fame, not shut in by four walls, but placed in the midst of this most frequented of her promenades, among the trees and flowers and fountains and lakes, where, as Marie Robinson Wright says, "the stories told in marble and bronze may inspire the multitude to patriotism and courage;" and, facing the driveways along the sides are many of the handsomest of the residences. The old center of the city is marked by the famous Plaza de Armas, with a marble monument representing South America receiving her baptism of fire in the war of independence. On one side are the Cathedral and Bishop's Palace, on another the splendid Municipal and Intendencia Buildings and Government Telegraph

Office, on the other, two long series of shops under fine arcades that extend the whole length of the sidewalks from corner to corner. It is around this plaza that society takes its customary stroll in the evenings and the dusky-eyed, black-haired *señoritas*, according to the Latin custom, flirt as much as they dare with the young exquisites who frankly and boldly admire with glances more eloquent the words. Opposite the Plaza O'Higgins, a few blocks away, is the Congressional Palace, which occupies the whole square and is one of the largest and handsomest buildings in South America. In architectural design it looks somewhat like the Senate and House wings of our Capitol at Washington, only of course it is much larger than either; and in the same district is the Casa de Moneda (the Mint), in which the President and Cabinet have their offices, a massive structure as big as our Washington Treasury.

In general style Santiago is not as modern as Valparaíso, though it is far more interesting and attractive and is not behind in public improvements and utilities or energy. The larger residences are characteristically Spanish, and, therefore charming to a stranger from the north. They are of the type described in the article on Uruguay—built around a central court or patio, as it is called, filled with flower beds and palms and graceful shrubs; very often there is a fountain and some statuary, and through the gateways delicious glimpses may be caught in passing; the windows opening on the streets are usually heavily barred; the walls are frescoed and tinted and ornamented with columns and wreaths and vases of stucco. Some few of these residences are constructed of massive stone and resemble the mansions on the principal streets of any of our northern cities. Like all the large South American towns, it has museums, libraries and a magnificent theater. In short, though differing from our capitals in many respects, this greatest city in Chile is obviously a metropolis and offers opportunities for sightseeing and amusements of every description that few cities in the world can surpass.

For comprehensive information in regard to travel routes, steamer and railroad service, hotels, money, gratuities, climate, clothing, customs and port regulations, the reader is referred to the following sources:

"*Practical Guide to Latin America. Preparation, Cost, Routes, Sight-Seeing*," by Albert Hale. Boston, Small, Maynard & Co., 1909.

The travellers' notes in "*The South Americans*," by the same author.

"*Travel Conditions in South America*," by Professor William R. Shepherd, published at pages 1004-1038 of the Pan American Bulletin for May, 1908.

The reader's inquiries will also be cheerfully answered by the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

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PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY

Words whose pronunciation is easy or can be found easily or which have been given in previous issues of the Reading Journey are not listed below.

Alameda de las	Ah-lah-may'-dah day	Madre de Dios	Mah'-dray day Dee-ohs'
Delicias	lahs Day-lee'-see-ahs	Malceon	Mah-lay-kohn'
alerce	ah-layr'-say	Maquignaz	Mah-keen-yaz'
Ancasquihucha	Ahn-kahs-kee-loo'-chah	Mensier	Mes'-see-ay
arete	ah-ray'-tay	Morelada	Moh-ray-lah'-dah
Atacama	Ah-tah-kah'-mah	Nueva Estremadura	Mah-kee-nahs'
Casa de Moneda	Kah'-sah day Moh-nay'- dah	oficina	may-doo'-rah
Chiloe	Chee-loh-ay'	Penas	oh-fee-see'-nah
Chonos	Choh'-nohs	poncho	Pay'-nahs
Copaibo	Koh-pah'-ee-boh	Portezuelo de Come	pohn'-chok
Copahué	Koh-pah'-oo-ay	Caballo	Pohr-tay-zoo-ay'-leh
Coquimbo	Koh-keem'-boh		day Koh'-may Kah- bak'-yoh
Cuevas	Koo-ay'-vahs	Pular	Pooh-lahr'
hacienda	ah-see-ayn'-dah	Rosales	Roh-zah'-lays
Horcones	Ohr-koh'-nays	Serena	Say-ray'-nah
Iquima	Ee-kee'-mah	Socompa	Soh-kohm'-pah
Iquique	Ee-kee'-kay	Tacna	Tahk'-nah
Las Demas	Lahs Day-mahs'	Tarapaca	Tah-rah-pah-kah'
lingue	Ieen'-gay	Taytao	Tah-ee-tah'-oh
llama	yah'-mah	Toroni	Tok-roh'-nee
Llanquihue	Yahn-kee'-oo-ay	Tronador	Troh-nah-dohr'
Los Patos	Lohs pah'-tohs	Tupungato	Too-poon-gah'-toh
Lucia	Loo-see-ah	Vina del Mar	Veen'-yah dayl Mahr
Llullallaza	Yoo-lah-ee-ah'-koh		



VII. Sanitary Engineering*

Carl S. Dow

JOHN Quincy Adams was asked one day, during his declining years, regarding his health. "John Quincy Adams, sir," was the reply, "is well. The house that he lives in is growing old and worn, but John Quincy Adams, sir, is well."

How much money and care we devote to our houses of wood and brick, but how little thought and exercise we give the complex bodies we live in! This was the case a few years ago, but, happily, public health is now receiving the attention it deserves. Dr. John Robertson, of the University of Birmingham, England, said that one of the most remarkable achievements of the nineteenth century was the advance in the health of the people. He went on to say that the death rate of Birmingham in 1851 was 26 per thousand; in 1910 it was only 12½ per thousand. This means that had the former death rate continued there would have been 12,000 more deaths in 1910 than actually occurred.

The individual's health, in so far as it bears no direct relation to the health of others, is his own affair. The promotion of public health, the improvement of health in towns and cities is the business of the Sanitary Engineer.

*Previous instalments of this series are "Engineers and Engineering" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1911; "The Steam Engine," October; "Heating Houses and Public Buildings," November; "Mechanical Refrigeration," December; "Compressed Air," January, 1912; "The Gasoline Engine," February.

Good health demands a certain amount of exercise; it also requires sunlight. These things are looked after by the individual to a great extent, except perhaps when factory conditions forbid. Good health also demands wholesome food, fresh air, and an abundance of pure water. These factors are not so much the affair of the individual as of the engineer, for the Civil Engineer assists in providing cheap, wholesome food by interesting himself in the improvement of transportation facilities, the Hydraulic Engineer builds waterworks and systems of distribution, and the Sanitary Engineer concerns himself with the ventilation of factories, mills, and schools, and still further works to maintain the purity of air by building sewer systems for the removal of town sewage, factory wastes, and whatever is detrimental to public health.

Sanitary Engineering has been defined as that branch of engineering which has for its object the improvement of the health of towns and cities, by bringing to them those things which promote health, and carrying from them those things which are injurious to it.

A majority of the many interests of the Sanitary Engineer may be placed under the three heads:—Ventilation, Water Supply, and Sewage Disposal.

VENTILATION

No family ever thinks of eating from dirty dishes; but filling the lungs with dirty air is not uncommon. Some prefer to breathe dead air or "second-hand" air rather than be chilly even for a few minutes. Many people seem perfectly willing to attend a poorly-ventilated theater and breathe the air already used by two thousand people. But the Sanitary Engineer and the Physician are fast eliminating such conditions by first finding out what are the real causes of discomfort when many people work together indoors, and then so conditioning the air that it meets the requirements of the workers.

A few years ago the scientists decided that air containing a moderate amount of carbon dioxide (carbonic acid gas) was unfit for breathing. It was all very simple—supplying enough fresh air to dilute the bad air and so keep the percentage of carbon dioxide down to a predetermined figure meant good ventilation. But a room filled with those persons typifying the “great unwashed,” who never know a dentist’s care and bathe as seldom as circumstances allow certainly impart to the room an odor vastly more offensive than would the same number of people who are habitually clean—yet the carbon dioxide percentage would be practically the same in both cases.

Later it was thought that one of the chief causes of discomfort and sickness, resulting from the breathing of air in a closed room, was poisons in exhaled breath. But experiments proved that so long as air contained oxygen, human beings were comfortable and healthy even if compelled to breathe for many hours air containing carbon dioxide far in excess of what had hitherto been declared the safe limit.

The Smithsonian Institute in Washington carefully analyzed exhaled breath. The most strict chemical analysis failed to show the existence of any poisonous matter.

Drowsiness, headache, minor illnesses are not caused by carbon dioxide; disease is not spread by breath exhaled from the lungs. What then is the trouble, for air in a room occupied by many people is unquestionably injurious if no fresh air, or but little fresh air is admitted. Most of the trouble is caused by the gaseous products of the decomposition of perspiration on the body. The rest of the trouble results from abnormal temperature and humidity, and foul odor from decayed teeth and disordered stomachs.

The human body gives off a large amount of perspiration containing much organic matter, which, in decomposing, causes the vile odor so often encountered in rooms and public conveyances where there are many people who allow perspiration to remain too long on the surfaces of their

bodies. Of course the body gives off heat also, and moisture enters the air both from the exhaled breath and by the evaporation of perspiration. The air in the room is not only bad, but as soon as it becomes saturated with vapor, the evaporation of perspiration is checked, resulting in the uncomfortable feeling experienced on a warm, muggy August day.

Now the evaporation of perspiration from the body cools it by taking away heat as explained in Physics or learned in studying Mechanical Refrigeration. We are comfortable in winter because little heat is carried away in this manner. In summer the evaporation is what enables us to endure the hot weather—but just as soon as the evaporation is checked we become uncomfortable—"heated" we call it.

The old carbon dioxide standard of efficiency of ventilation has been given up. What then is the standard? There is none; no single standard can be formulated from present medical, bacteriological, or engineering information. There cannot well be a single standard, for ventilation need not be as efficient for an isolated building occupied by clean, healthy individuals, especially if plenty of sunshine enters. On the other hand, an abundant supply of fresh air is necessary in hospitals where the general health is low; in basements, or in places where hygiene and cleanliness are neglected.

As one physician puts it, "the theoretical standard of ventilation should be such that no inhabitant will be harmed immediately or ultimately by the air of the place ventilated. In order that this may be brought about, it is necessary that every factor be standardized."

In short, adequate ventilation is the correction of all undesirable atmospheric conditions, such as too high or too low temperature or humidity, contamination from offensive odors, or injurious gases from the body, or from damp cellars or leaky gas jets.

The practical side of ventilation is shown by the numerous instances of financial saving resulting from the removal of foul air from work rooms, the better air reducing absences of workers and causing greater efficiency. Individual health and happiness also follow proper air conditioning.

An investigation into the conditions in the operating room of the New England Telegraph and Telephone Company at Cambridge, Massachusetts, showed that 4.9 per cent of the girl operators were absent during the winter months of 1906 and 4.5 per cent in 1907. The installation of a simple ventilating system, costing only \$75, reduced the absences to 1.9 per cent. There were no other changes in condition.

In a straw-hat factory in Baltimore, there was no ventilating apparatus. The first two winters the absences were $27\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. After putting in the ventilating system, the percentage dropped to seven.

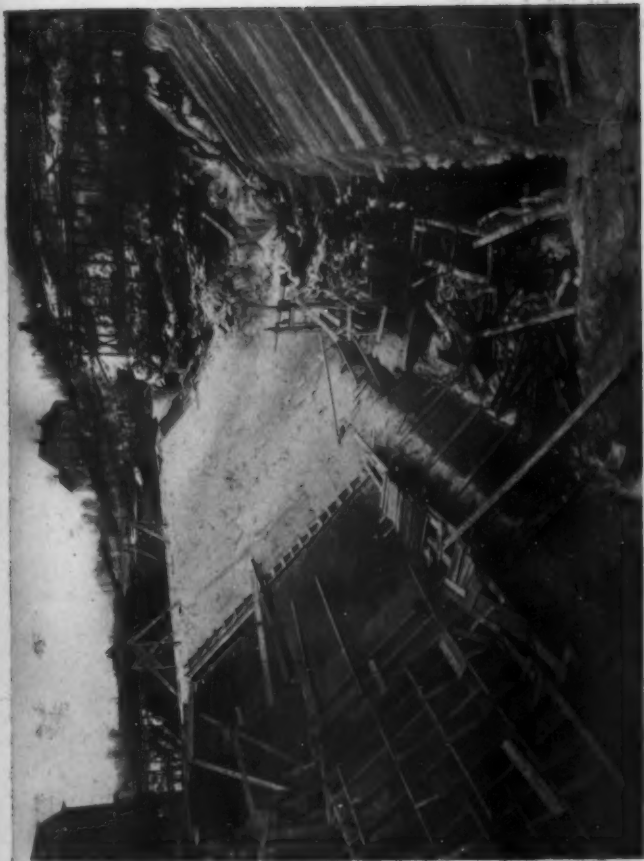
No article on this subject would even approach completeness without mentioning the now classic case of the United States Pension Bureau. For several successive years the average number of days of absence due to sickness was 18,736. Removing the offices from scattered, poorly-ventilated buildings to new and well-ventilated quarters reduced the absences to 10,114.

Of the methods employed for ventilation, the stationary ventilator is the most simple. It is a device for letting foul or over-heated air escape simply because it is warmer in the building than outside, the heated air rising as in a chimney. Such ventilators merely provide a way for foul air to escape, the fresh air entering the building through every crack or crevice, some of it from desirable sources and some from places which may be far from healthy.

With the power-driven fan, the foul air is withdrawn whether cold or hot, and the amount handled is varied by altering the speed of the fan. Or, the fan may draw the







Concrete Dam across the Little Androscoggin River at Auburn, Maine. Built in the winter of 1907-1908 by the Aberthaw Construction Company

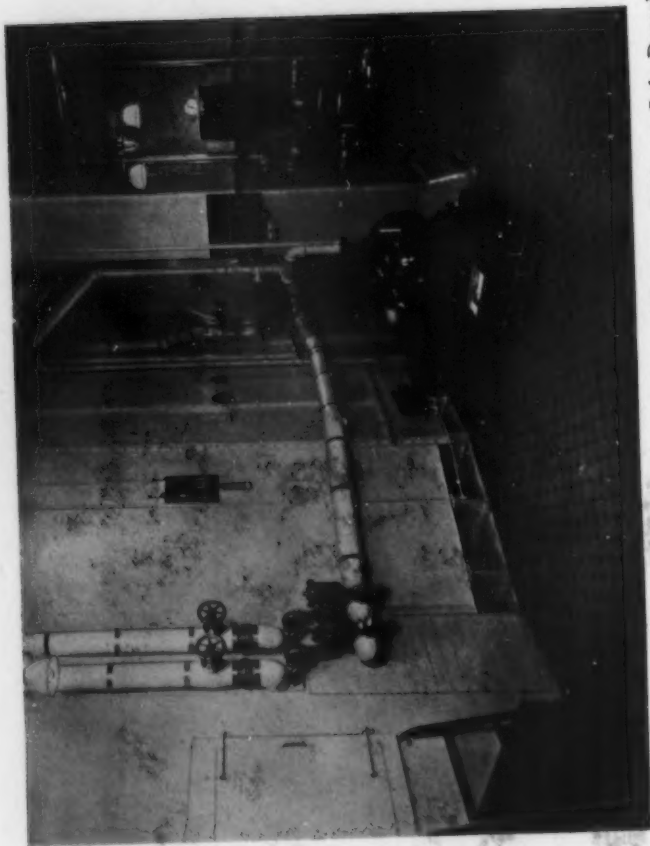


Old Roman Sewer. In active operation for twenty-six centuries. The most famous sewer ever built—the Cloaca Maxima

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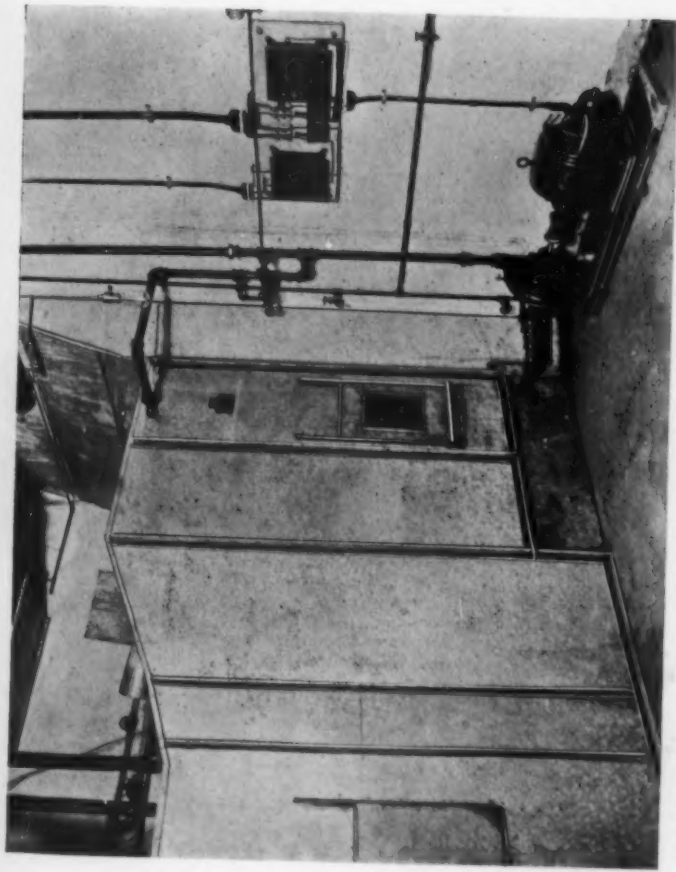


Building a sewer in Louisville, Kentucky. Three lines of salt-glazed sewer pipe imbedded in concrete

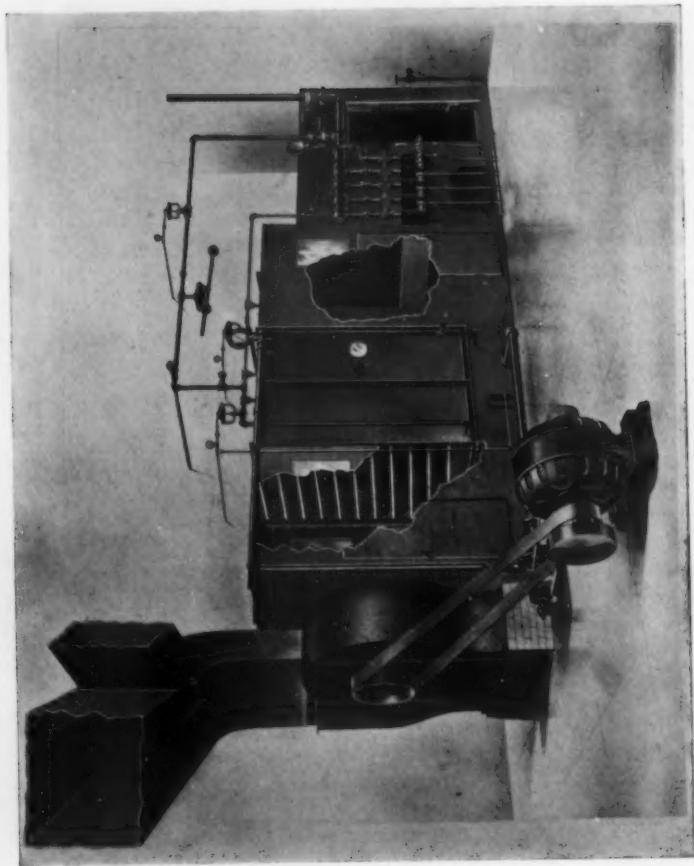


Webster Air Washer Installation with Humidity Control in Baltimore Safe Deposit
and Trust Company

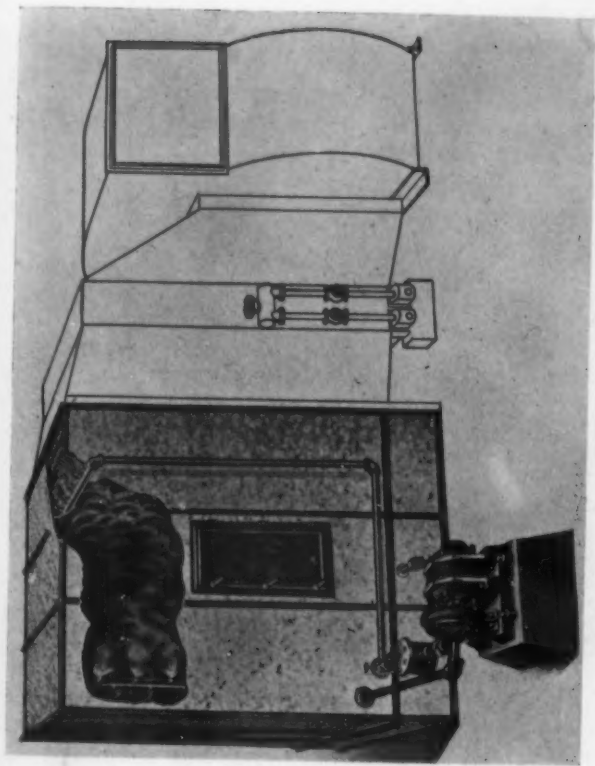
Webster Air Washer Installation with Humidity Control at Machinery Sales Company and Trust Company



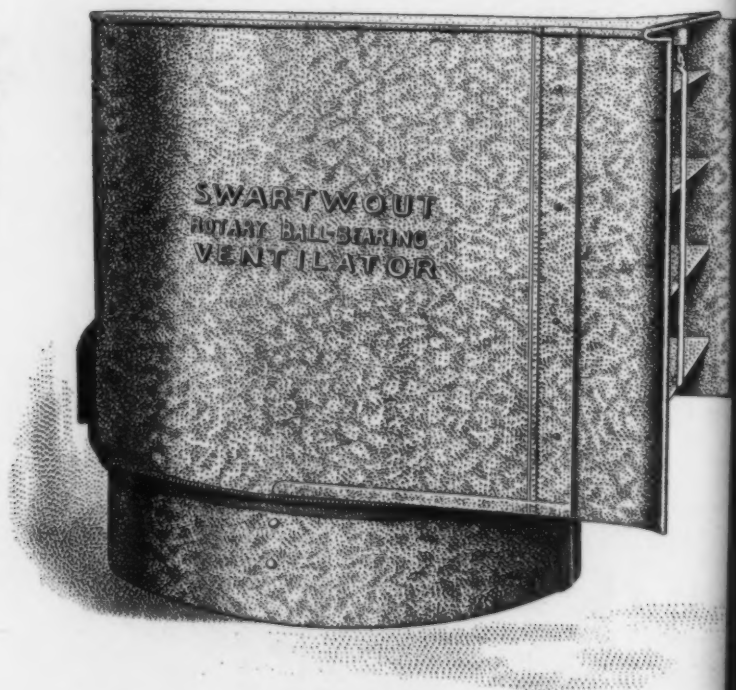
Air Washer in Wells-Fargo Building, San Francisco. Installation by Warren Webster and Company



Complete Webster Air Conditioning Apparatus—Heaters, Sprays, Eliminators, Fan, and Automatic Control



Carrier Air Washer and Humidifier Showing Sprays in Operation



Ventilator for Industrial and Public Buildings. Swings on Ball Bearings to utilize the action of the wind in removing foul and overheated air

air from some source known to be free from contamination and force it into the building, the foul or over-heated air leaking out or passing out through the ventilating flues provided.

The most complete conditioning of air includes a treatment which gives it the proper temperature and humidity, and washes out the dirt. "Laundered air" is not uncommon now-a-days. Many banks, some business houses, theaters, schools, and hospitals are provided with air-washers, and most textile mills depend upon air of properly controlled humidity for best and most economical production.

Air is conditioned by properly moistening it to give it the correct humidity, cleaning it from dirt, odor, gases, and disease germs, and giving it the temperature it should have when it enters the rooms. Of the many methods of conditioning air, probably the most satisfactory results are obtained by the use of water sprays.

The air entering the spray chamber comes in contact with finely divided particles of water or atomized spray. The spray seizes upon the dust particles, causing them to drop to the bottom of the chamber called the settling tank. The sprays are supplied with hot water for winter months so that the air is not only washed and moistened but is warmed also. In summer, cool water is used, the air becoming quite cool because of the evaporation of some of the spray water.

At the end of the spray chamber, is the eliminator, which consists of a series of plates arranged "zig-zag." The saturated air strikes these eliminator plates, the first few of which are flooded with water to catch any solid matter which was not precipitated by the sprays. In passing by the edge of the remaining eliminator plates, the excess moisture is removed or eliminated so that not a bit of free moisture remains in the air. The cleansed moistened air is then drawn into the fan which forces it through the steam heater into the ducts and passages which form the distributing system.

The cooling of the air is one of the great advantages of such a method of air conditioning. Of course air may be cooled by passing it over pipes circulating cold brine, but the cooling is expensive and but partial because the difference in temperature is not great. With the spray system, the summer air is reduced about ten degrees; in fact a system of this kind in one of the largest hotels in New York cooled the entering air thirteen degrees below the outside air which was 84 degrees. The spray water is used over and over again. A somewhat lower temperature might have been obtained with a constant supply of fresh cooler water.

WATER SUPPLY

With a lake full of water at its doors, Chicago uses 188,315,000 gallons of water every twenty-four hours. Chicago uses this amount and it wastes more than it uses. For every inhabitant, the pumps handle 202 gallons per day—a considerable increase from 138 gallons in 1890. But statistics gathered by engineers show that water is not only used liberally but its use is steadily increasing in almost every city.

A very large water consumption generally means either a needless waste by defective plumbing, or extensive manufacturing. In Chicago it is estimated that 20 per cent is wasted by poor plumbing and 30 per cent is lost by underground leakage. There is no good excuse for such enormous wastes. Perhaps the low rate charged (seven cents per 1,000 gallons) is partly responsible for the carelessness, but it does not excuse leakage from water mains. Recently, measures were taken to remedy the defects in plumbing and piping with the result that with the work far from complete, the saving has been 4,000,000 gallons per day.

Statistics are usually dry and uninteresting, but some of the tables computed by municipal engineers give information regarding water used, population, size of families, etc., which is of absorbing interest to those studying muni-

icipal affairs or Sanitary Engineering. San José, California, a relatively new town inhabited by Americans, uses 194 gallons of water per capita per day, while Baton Rouge, an old town in Louisiana peopled by French, gets along with but nineteen gallons. New York and Boston, two cities having water from considerable distance, used, in 1890, seventy-nine and eighty gallons respectively.

SEWAGE

When Hercules was given the task of cleaning the Augean stables, one of his twelve labors, he turned a stream of water through them. His famous exploit was a piece of good engineering because he not only planned to bring to the stables the one great agent which would do the work, but also provided for its outflow. Engineers today follow his lead by supplementing the public water supply by a public sewage system, for the large volume of water coming to a city must be gotten rid of after performing its task of cleansing the homes.

It is evident that the object of a sewer system is to carry the sewage from a city to some point where it may be discharged into a river, lake, or ocean, where by mingling with a large quantity of water and exposed to air it will be purified.

In planning such a system, the water supply data are all important. Where no other data are available, the amount of sewage to be disposed of is taken as the amount of water supplied. Some towns have no records which give accurately the amount of fresh water pumped into it; in such cases, the engineers must look to statistics of other towns of about the same size and character. That size alone does not give figures reliable enough for comparisons is shown by the fact that Patterson, New Jersey, uses 128 gallons per capita, while Fall River with about the same number of inhabitants has a daily consumption of but 29 gallons per capita. Buffalo, a relatively large manufacturing city uses 186 gallons per capita, but Cambridge, Massachu-

setts, largely residential and much smaller, uses but 64.

It has been estimated from averages that towns of less than 25,000 inhabitants require about sixty gallons per capita per day and large cities need eighty to one hundred gallons. These figures are fairly reliable for sewer design in case the actual water rate is not known. But in American cities the population may grow very rapidly in a decade, so that it is not at all uncommon for the engineer to put in sewer pipe large enough to carry twice as much sewage as the water supply would furnish.

The sewer is often the means of carrying off the storm water, and when so used must be far larger than if made to handle sewage only. The engineer must then look to weather reports to find the maximum rainfall in an hour during the last ten years. It is obvious that the total rainfall for a year is of no consequence—the sewer must be large enough to care for a sudden downpour. One inch of rain per hour is about the maximum. What part of the rainfall reaches the sewer? In country towns relatively little, for the ground takes it up. In cities the roofs and pavements shed it and most storm water reaches the sewer.

Another factor which the Sanitary Engineer must take into serious account is the character of the surface of the town. The hills and low places often influence the size of the sewer pipes, for with a good pitch or inclination, the pipes may be smaller than for level stretches, but if the pitch is obtained by very deep excavation the smaller and cheaper pipe may really cost more when laid.

These are a few of the features considered in designing the sewer system; thorough investigation, good judgment, mathematics, and reliable tables of water consumption and pipe sizes are others.

The work of the Sanitary Engineer is comparatively easy when a city sewer can be made to empty into the ocean, as in the case of seaport towns. It is far more difficult in cities on the shores of large lakes, for the lake

also supplies the drinking water. Chicago's problem is well known. When the city became large and it was no longer feasible to take water from one part of the lake and empty the sewage into another part, the problem became difficult, but was solved by digging the drainage canal, a very important engineering project. Probably the largest problem of this nature concerns the large cities on the Great Lakes.

The difficulty or the expense of disposing of sewage by emptying it into a water course or ocean has led to all kinds of sewage purification schemes. The manner in which Baltimore is to treat and dispose of its sewage will serve as a good example of how it can be done without polluting streams.

Sewage from the city of Baltimore, coming from 160 miles of mains and laterals, goes to the disposal plant five and a half miles away where it first passes very slowly through settling tanks. The solid and heavier substance, called sludge, settles, and remains at the bottom of these tanks. The solid portion is drawn into digesting tanks where it remains until reduced to an innocuous condition. After drying out on sand beds, it is used for filling in low ground.

The water or liquid sewage is purified without chemicals. It is sprayed over filter beds of broken stone which have a depth of eight and one-half feet. The sewage deposits on the stones a gelatinous film in which the bacteria grow, and the water passing successively over this film is purified. The comparatively pure water then passes slowly through settling basins and on to the power house. At this point a fall of eighteen feet is utilized for operating the water wheels which drive the electric generators for furnishing electric light. Leaving the power house, the water is discharged into a nearby river.

This disposal plant is constructed on the "unit" system, that is, it is made up of several complete units which are

practically independent of one another. With this scheme, additions can be made at any time to care for extensions of the sewer system. The system for Baltimore is so planned that with additions it will dispose of the sewage when the population reaches 1,000,000.

Doubtless the method of disposing of the sewage in the future will be along these lines, for some system must be used to prevent sending polluted water into our lakes and streams. Factories and mills in order to co-operate with cities and towns for sanitary betterment will have to purify the water they pollute.

SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE REQUIRED READING WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THE MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading, Pages 28-98).

Recent Phases of Journalism

Frank Chapin Bray

MODERN journalism is so unabashed and unconfined, that any attempt to define latest phases may be quite behind the times by the time it reaches the eye of the reader on this printed page. Indeed American journalism seems to make its own definitions as it goes along, with little reverence for journalistic traditions and with something like contempt for the term journalism itself. Newspaper men—publishers, editors, department editors, special writers or plain reporters—magazine writers, staff photographers, advertising men, etc., do not have the habit nowadays of calling themselves or each other journalists, although they are makers of journalism as we have it today. On the other hand the technical distinctions still raised among the craft between the legitimate function, field, and form of the magazine, the weekly, and the daily newspaper make less and less impression on the reading public. To the reader journalism is the newspapers, plus all kinds of peri-

odicals. Unprecedented in quantity; in quality so often apparently all out of proportion to the price; complex as the interests of the modern era it exploits; trusted, feared, and mistrusted as a money-making publicity business, it baffles classification and analysis.

Perhaps the most notable latter-day development has been a species of so-called national journalism embodied in the popular priced magazine of large circulation. Mr. S. S. McClure is properly credited with pioneering in this field, and the vogue of the magazine of exposure has had not a little to do with the conception that publicity is first aid to injured democracy. Not that books had not dealt voluminously with social, political and industrial ills, but they were higher priced and reached a comparatively limited number of readers. Not that newspapers had failed to unearth national, state and local evils, but that necessarily catering daily to populations within circumscribed geographical limits, a provincial perspective on local problems was more or less inevitable.

Magazine journalism not only tackled Standard Oil, Wall Street, the Senate, the trusts and the tariff, but it professed to be able to show cities to themselves as others saw them from the national point of view—San Francisco's graft, Cleveland's traction struggle, Chicago's canned beef reputation, St. Louis with her boodlers, Pittsburg's industrial pit, Philadelphia's political soddenness, New York's insurance scandals, and the like. The articles were signed by the writers so that people distinguished them from mere employés of an impersonal publication business; their truth-telling purpose and independence of local entanglements was widely assumed. How far the sehsitizing of conscience regarding big and little business, good and bad politics, is attributable to magazine journalism could not easily be calculated; a change of attitude has been and is discernible in the daily and weekly press as well.

Meantime it has been interesting to observe coincident

discussion of the decadence of the magazine. Editorials have directed attention to the few survivors of the type that devoted themselves to literature and art, whose chief contributions in due time went into the more permanent form of books. It has also been pointed out that magazines have not been altogether free from the big business sins they criticize: subsidies, gentlemen's agreements, over-capitalization, stock jobbing and other bits of high finance. The public may recognize some value in the check kept on each other in this respect by the magazine and the newspaper business. Incidentally it may be stated that by formal resolution the leading newspaper association of the United States has put itself on record against giving such wholesale free space as formerly to quotations from the magazines, thus recognizing them as competitors for that revenue from advertising which is life or death to the great majority of modern publications.

To say that development of advertising is the chief end of much of the latest journalism is no exaggeration. The admixture claims to be that larger journalism which is fittest to survive. It was Carolyn Wells, I think, who hit off the popular magazine as "a small body of literature entirely surrounded by advertisements." A "magazine" supplement is freely supplied to various Sunday newspapers in exchange for a distribution to you, dear reader, that shall make good the circulation guaranteed to advertisers by the lithographic company which publishes the magazine. President Angell in his "Reminiscences" recalls with special delight his editorship of the *Providence Journal* in Civil War days, when it sold at six cents a copy; you spend a penny for the marvellous metropolitan morning paper which brings the latest news from the ends of the earth to your breakfast tables and it is calculated that revenue from advertising will pay the rest of the cost and a publisher's profit besides. There are excellent eight page dailies published in smaller cities at the subscription price of \$1.50

or less per year. A 32-page Brooklyn weekly, four editions for different sections, specializing on local news and local advertising, is delivered free to some 80,000 residents on the strength of its advertising value. Do the phenomenal trade journals, which now constitute an extraordinarily interesting section of specialized journalism render greater service to the trade constituency in the advertising or the text pages? Have you noticed the misalliance with doubtful medicinal advertising in some religious journals? Be it added, however, that enterprising publications, though competitors for advertising, have not merely campaigned against quack and fraudulent advertisers but have refused to accept advertisements for which they are unwilling to accept reasonable responsibility. The spread of such advertising ethics to the press in general would strengthen confidence in journalism at large.

Again, news and advertising overlap; the line between them is indistinct. How much of an aviation contest financed by a newspaper is news and how much is advertising? A rival newspaper may answer by reporting the contest without naming its competitor. Or, consider the mammoth present-day automobile business. You get columns and pages of reading matter about motor cars and motoring accompanied by pages and columns of display advertisements of automobiles. It is furthermore the goal of the advertising specialist to make advertisements that shall have the appeal of news. If perchance he succeeds in getting by both publisher and editor with advertising in the guise of news, he is envied by other publicity experts. Indeed, there is reason to suspect that the ad. journalist has had an influence on the style of many publications in respect to catch head lines, black-faced letter emphasis, and other typographical devices to attract attention. That the make-up and page form of publications is so generally determined by advertising considerations is almost too obvious to mention. It should be said, however, that there

are noteworthy publications which survive—even grow—chiefly by intensive cultivation of special reading fields, rather than by entering into the big advertising game.

This article began by suggesting that the latest journalism is unconfined; discussion has led to the impression that the advertising end is strikingly undefined. Publishers and editors protest that a postmaster general cannot make a definition that will stand; a special commission headed by Justice Hughes may soon have something interesting to say along this line. Considerable readjustment impends under the name of more scientific management of expenditures by advertisers. The idea of government regulation of the big business of modern journalism conflicts with our ideal of the freedom of the press. But that the latest journalism, big and little, displays vital virtues and virulent vices unequaled by any other kind of modern business may be inferred from what the publications say themselves. It is still customary to point out that the publication business is subject to a double competition: competition in getting and printing news and reading matter that people will buy, as well as competition in securing revenue from plain advertising and all the indefinite related shades of modern publicity.

A chronicle of some of the interesting recent developments in journalism would include the following:

The vote at the last election in Los Angeles to establish a municipal newspaper, managed by a commission appointed by the mayor, free to voters and taxpayers applying in person for it but sent to subscribers at one cent per copy. By law its purpose is the accurate publication of municipal news. Editorial argument upon municipal issues shall be in harmony with those principles and measures which have been approved by the voters in various recognized forms. Any political organization polling three per cent of the votes shall be entitled to its proportion of space free in every issue. Here is a novel municipal experiment with a paper that shall contain news, comment and advertising, represent

the administration elected to office (subject to recall), and provide fairly proportional and free opportunity for all parties and principles to get before the voters. Among other recently established municipal papers are: *Denver Municipal Facts* (weekly), *Progressive Houston*, the *Philadelphia* and the *San Francisco Municipal Record* (monthly) circulated free, and the *Boston City-Record* (weekly at \$1.00). But the Los Angeles *Municipal News* boldly extends the field of publication heretofore more narrowly defined in various cities.

The rise of the eclectic publication of the *Literary Digest* type, purporting to give both sides of current questions is a striking journalistic sign of the times.

In the daily and weekly press the profession of independence of party allegiance increases and flourishes.

The Hearst chain of dailies, *New York American*, *Chicago American*, *San Francisco Examiner*, *Los Angeles Examiner*, *Atlanta Georgian*; the Ochs chain of *New York Times*; *Philadelphia Ledger*, *Chattanooga Times*; the Munsey chain of *Washington Times*, *Baltimore News*, *Philadelphia Times*; the Scripps League in Ohio and the middle west, indicate recent tendencies of business organization. The same movement toward groups under one management characterizes the magazine field. As for example: *Ladies' Home Journal*, *Saturday Evening Post*, *Country Gentleman*; the Butterick trio, *Everybody's*, and *Adventure*; *World's Work*, *Country Life*, *Gardening*, *Short Stories*; *American*, *Woman's Home Companion*, *Farm and Fireside*; *Cosmopolitan*, *Good Housekeeping*, *World Today*; *McClure's* and the *Ladies' World*.

Mr. Munsey's varied group of monthly magazines is the latest source of the weekly magazine of fiction. The weekly of news and comment with a monthly magazine issue, is older and has become an accepted form in such publications as the *Outlook*, *Independent*, *Survey*, etc. The role of the free lance weekly like *Collier's*, the *Boston Common*, *The*

Public of Chicago, the *Mirror* of St. Louis, or the *Argonaut* of San Francisco, is an interesting study, while the propagandist weekly like Mr. Bryan's *Commoner* and *La Follette's Weekly* is a notable innovation.

Multiplication of special periodicals, labor, fraternal, technical, educational, scientific, of a remarkably high degree of excellence we should catalog as a highly significant development.

Among denominationally established religious weeklies a syndicate plan has recently joined the management of one Baptist paper, the *Examiner*, and four Presbyterian papers, the *Observer*, *Presbyterian Banner*, *Michigan Presbyterian* and *Pacific Presbyterian*. Seventeen state Sunday School journals have recently been syndicated. From another quarter we also read:

"To connect all the universities of the Middle States by wireless telegraph and thereby provide a medium for the free exchange of news for the benefit of student publications, is the hope of the electrical engineering department of the University of Michigan."

A rapid increase of Socialist papers in number and circulation along with a near-Socialist attitude in a growing proportion of the established newspaper press is a current phenomenon of more than passing interest.



THE first newspaper issued in our colonies was published in 1690 by Benjamin Harris at the London Coffee-House, Boston, and was printed by Richard Pierce. There was but one issue and but one copy is known to be in existence, cherished in the Colonial State Paper Office of London. This copy is printed on three pages of a folded sheet, each page eleven by seven and holding two columns. The entire paper, including the editor's prospectus, follows.

PUBLICK

OCCURRENCES

Both FORREIGN and DOMESTICK

Boston, Thursday, Sept. 25th, 1690.

IT is designed that the Countrey shall be furnished once a moneth (or if any Glut of Occurrences happen oftener) with an account of such considerable things as have arrived unto our notice.

In order here unto, the Publisher will take what pains he can to obtain a Faithful Relation of all such things; and will particularly make himself beholden to such persons in Boston whom he knows to have been for their own use the diligent observers of such matters.

That which is herein proposed is, First That Memorable Occurrences of Divine Providence may not be neglected or forgotten, as they too often are. Secondly, That people everywhere may better understand the Circumstances of Publique Affairs, both abroad and at home; which may not only direct their Thoughts at all times, but at some times also to assist their Business and Negotiations.

Thirdly, That some thing may be done towards the Curing, or at least the Charming of that Spirit of Lying, which prevails among us, wherefore nothing shall be entered, but what we have reason to believe is true, repairing to the best fountains for our Information. And when there appears any material mistake in any thing that is collected, it shall be corrected in the next.

Moreover, the Publisher of these Occurrences is willing to engage that whereas there are many False Reports, maliciously made and spread among us, if any well minded will be at the pains to trace any such false Report, so far as to find out and Convict the First Raiser of it, he will in this Paper (unless just Advice be given to the contrary, expose the Name of such person, as A malicious Raiser of a False Report. It is supposed that none will dislike this Proposal, but such as intend to be guilty of so villanous a Crime.

THE Christianized Indians in some parts of Plimouth, have newly appointed a day of Thanksgiving to God for his mercy in supplying their extream and pinching Necessities under their late want of Corn, and for His giving them now a prospect of a very Comfortable Harvest. Their Example may be worth Mentioning.

'Tis observed by the Husbandmen, that altho' the With-draw of so great a strength from them, as what is in the Forces lately

gone for *Canada*, made them think it almost impossible for them to get well through the Affairs of their Husbandry at this time of the year, yet the season has been so unusually favorable that they scarce find any want of the many hundred of hands, that are gone from them; which is looked upon as a merciful Providence.

While the barbarous *Indians* were lurking about *Chelmsford*, there were missing about the beginning of this Month a couple of Children belonging to a man of that Town, one of them aged about eleven, the other aged about nine years, both of them supposed to be fallen into the hands of the *Indians*.

A very *Tragical Accident* happened at *Watertown* the beginning of the Month, an *Old Man*, that was of a somewhat Silent and Morose Temper, but one that had long Enjoyed the reputation of a *Sober* and a *Pious Man*, having newly buried his Wife, The Devil took advantage of the Melancholy which he thereupon fell into, his wives discretion and industry had long been the support of his Family, and he seemed hurried with an impertinent fear that he should now come to want before he dyed, though he had very careful friends to look after him who kept a strict eye upon him, lest he should do himself any harm. But one evening escaping from them into the Cow-house, they there quickly followed him, found *hanging by a Rope*, which they had used to tye their *Calves* withal, he was dead with his feet near touching the Ground.

Epidemical Fevers and *Agues* grow very common, in some parts of the Country, whereof, tho' many dye not, yet they are sorely unfitted for their employments; but in some parts a more *malignant Fever* seems to prevail in such sort that it usually goes thro' a Family where it comes, and proves mortal unto many.

The *Small pox* which has been raging in *Boston*, after a manner very Extraordinary, is now very much abated. It is thought that far more have been sick of it than were visited with it, when it raged so much twelve years ago, nevertheless it has not been so Mortal. The number of them that have dyed in *Boston* by this last Visitation is about *three hundred and twenty*, which is not perhaps half so many as fell by the former. The time of its being most *General*, was in the Months, *June, July* and *August*, then 'twas that sometimes in some one Congregation on a *Lords-day* there would be *Bills* desiring prayers for above an *hundred sick*. It seized upon all sorts of people that came in the way of it. 'Tis not easy to relate the Trouble and Sorrow that poor *Boston* has felt by this *Epidemical Contagion*. But we hope it will be pretty nigh Extinguished, by that time twelve-month when it first began to Spread. It now unhappily spreads in several

other places, among which our Garrisons in the *East* are to be reckoned some of the Sufferers.

Altho' *Boston* did a few weeks ago, meet with a Disaster by *Fire*, which consumed about *twenty Houses* near the *Mill-Creek*, yet about midnight, between the sixteenth and seventeenth of this Instant, another *Fire* broke forth near the *South-Meeting-House*, which consumed about five or six homes, and had almost carried the Meeting-house itself, one of the fairest Edifices in the Country, if God had not remarkably assisted the Endeavours of the People to put out the Fire. There were two more considerable Circumstances in the Calamities of this Fire, one was that a young man belonging to the House where the Fire began, unhappily perished in the Flames; it seems that tho' he might sooner awake than some others who did escape, yet he some way lost those Wits that should have taught him to help himself. Another was that the best furnished PRINTING PRESS, of those few that we know of in *America* was lost; a loss not presently to be repaired.

There lately arrived at *Piscataqua*, one *Papoon* from *Penobscot*, in a small Shallop, wherein he had used to attend upon the pleasure of *Casteen*, but took his opportunity to run away, and reports: That a Vessel of small Bulk bound from *Bristol* to *Virginia*, having been so long at Sea, till they were prest with want, put in at *Penobscot* instead of *Piscataqua*, where the *Indians* and *French* seized her, and Butchered the Master, and several of the men; but that himself who belonged unto the Ships Crew, being a *Jersey-man*, was more favorably used and found at length an advantage to make his Escape.

The chief discourse of this month has been about the affairs of the Western Expedition against Canada. The *Albanians*, *New Yorkers* and the five Nations of *Indians*, in the *West*, had long been pressing of the *Massachusetts* to make an Expedition by Sea into *Canada*, and still made us believe, that they stayed for us, and that while we assaulted *Quebeck*, they would pass the *Lake*, and by Land make a Descent upon *Mount Real*. Accordingly this Colony with some assistance from our Kind Neighbors of *Plimouth*; fitted an Army of near *five and twenty hundred men*, and a Navy of two and thirty sail; which went from hence the beginning of the last *August* under the Command of the Honourable Sir *William Phipps*.

In the meantime the *English Colonies* and *Provinces* in the *West* raised Forces, the Numbers whereof have been reported five or six hundred. The Honourable General *Winthrop* was in the Head of these, and advanced within a few miles of the *Lake*; He there had some good number of *Maquas* to joyn his Forces, but

contrary to his Expectation, it was found that the Canoo's to have been ready for the transportation of the Army over the *Lake*, were not prepared, and the other Nations of *Indians*, that should have come to this *Campaign*, sent their Excuses, pretending that the Smallpox was among them, and some other Trifles. The General Meeting with such vexing disappointment called a Council of War, wherein 'twas agreed, That it was impossible for them to prosecute their Intended Expedition. However he despatched away the Maqua's to the *French Territories*, who returned with some Success, having slain several of the *French*, and brought home several Prisoners, whom they used in a manner too barbarous for any *English* to approve. The General coming back to *Albany*, there happened a misunderstanding between him and the Lieutenant Governor of *New York* which occasioned much discourse, but produced not those effects which were feared of it. Where lay the bottom of these miscarriages is variously conjectured, if any people further West than *Albany*, have been tampering with the *Indians*, to desert the business of *Canada*, we hope time will discover it. And if Almighty God will have *Canada* to be subdued without the assistance of those miserable Salvages, in whom we have too much confided, we shall be glad, that there will be no sacrifice offered up to the Devil, upon this occasion; God alone will have all the glory.

'Tis possible we have not so exactly related the Circumstances of this business, but the Account, is as near exactness, as any that could be had, in the midst of many various reports about it.

Another late matter of discourse, has been an unaccountable destruction befalling a body of *Indians*, that were our Enemies. This body of *French Indians* had a Fort somewhere far up the River, and a party of Maqua's returning from the *East Country*, where they have at a great rate pursued and terrified those *Indians* which have been invading our *North East Plantations*, and Killed their General Hope Hood among the rest; resolved to visit this Fort; but they found the Fort ruined, the Canoo's cut to pieces, and the people either Butchered or Captived. This gave us no little surprise and they gave the *English* this account of it, That a body of Maqua's lately returning from the spoil of *Canada* brought several *French Prisoners* with them; That calling at this Fort in their way, the *Indians* there seeing themselves unable to resist them did pass divers Compliments with them and partake of their Booties. That a *French* Captive after this, escaping from the Maqua's informed the *French* that these *Indians* had revolted unto the Maqua's, and hereupon the *French* or their *Indians* made a sudden Sally forth upon them, and utterly destroyed them, tho' they were in reality of their own party still.

Two *English Captives* escaped from the hands of *Indians* and *French* at Pscadamoquady, came into Portsmouth on the sixteenth Instant and say, That when Capt. Mason was at Port Real, he cut the faces, and ript the bellies of two *Indians*, and threw a third over board in the sight of the *French*, who informing the other *Indians* of it, they had in revenge barbarously Butcher'd forty Captives of ours that were in their hands.

These two captives escaped in a Shallop, which our enemies intended to have set out with all the Circumstances of a Fishing Shallop but to have indeed filled with *Indians* that should have Clap't on board any *English Vessel* that came in their way; They say that about three or four weeks ago, some *Indians* were coming this way to War, but crossing a path which they supposed to be of the Maqua's, they followed it untill they discovered a place where some Canoo's were making, whereupon twenty *Kennebeck Indian-Warriors* went to look further after the business who never yet returned, Which gives hope that they may come short home but upon this the Squaws are sent to *Penobscot*, and the men stand on their Defence.

Portsmouth, Sept. 20th. Two days since arrived here a small Vessel from *Barbadoes*, in which is a letter to Captain H. K. of 19th *August* that speaks thus,

Christophers is wholly taken from the *French* as also a small island called *Stacia*; we are very strong in Shipping, and our Ships of War are now gone for *Tobago*, a very good place to shelter from any Storms, after the suspicious months are over, they will Attack the rest of the *French* places. We have News here that *K. William* is safe arrived in *Ireland*, and is marched with one hundred and forty thousand Foot and Horse. Himself leads the Body, Duke *Scomburgh* the right Wing, and the Earl of *Oxford* the left Wing, Duke *Hamilton* of *Scotland* leads the forlorn Hope with ten thousand men under him, Great victory they dayly have, and much people daily come in to him, with submission; He has 200 Shipping with him of one sort or other, above one hundred Sail dayly run between *Ireland* and *England*, with meat for Man and Beast; His Majesty being unwilling to trust false *Ireland* for it. *France* is in much trouble (and fear not only with us but also with his Son, who has revolted against him lately, and has great reason) if reports be true. He has got all the *Hugonots*, and all the dissatisfied Papists, with the great force of the D. of *Loraighn*, and are now against him, resolving to depose him of his Life and Kingdom.

It's Reported the City of *Cork* in *Ireland* has proclaimed

K. William and turned their *French* Landlords out of Doors: of this there wants further confirmation.

From *Plimouth* Sept. 22, We have an Account that on *Friday* the 12th Instant, in the night, our Forces Landing privately, forthwith surrounded *Pegypscot* Fort; but finding no *Indians* there, they March'd to *Amonoscoggin*. There on the Lords-day, they kill'd and took 15 or 16 of the Enemy, and recovered five *English* Captives, mostly belonging to *Oyster River*; who advised that the men had been gone about ten days down to a River, to meet with the *French*, and the *French Indians*; where they expected to make up a Body of 200 men, and design first against *Wells* or *Piscataqua*.

On *Tuesday*, the Army came to our Vessels at *Macquoit*, but one of the Vessels touching a Ground stopt a Tide; by which means young *Bracket*, who was a considerable distance up the River, above *Amonoscoggin* Fort, being advised by an Indian that ran away from *Amonoscoggin*, that an *English* Army was there attempted his Escape, and came down to the Sloop just as they came on their Sail.

On *Thursday*, they landed at *Saco*; a Scout of 60 men of ours discovered a party of the enemy, and had the Advantage of Killing three of them, and of taking nine *Canoo's*, and an *English* captive named, *Thomas Baker*, who informed, that the Enemy had left a considerable Plunder at *Pegypscot-Plains*, which he supposed the Enemy was gone to secure.

Whereupon, the Army immediately embark'd, and arriving there that night, the next morning found the Bever Plunder accordingly.

While our Vessels were at Anchor in *Cascoe Bay*, our Auxiliary *Indians* lodging on shore, and being too careless in their Watch, the Enemy made an Attaque upon them. The *English* forthwith repair'd to their Relief; but were sorely galled by an Embuscade of *Indians*. The Enemy soon quitted the field, escaping with their *Canoo's* whereof ours took several. In the Surprise, we lost 9 men, and had about 20 wounded; the blow chiefly fell on our dear *Friends*, the *Plimouth Forces*, 15 being killed and wounded of Captain *Southworth's* Company.

The Vesper Hour

Under the direction of Chancellor John H. Vincent

THE HABIT OF WORK*

By Professor Hugh Black of Union Theological Seminary.

Do the duty that lies nearest to thee.

Thy second duty will already become clearer.

—Carlyle.

The secret of order and proportion in our studies is
the true secret of economy in time.

—P. G. Hamerton.

The place of habit in life can hardly be overestimated. Habit works a groove for us into which we fall easily and in which we move swiftly, so that the great bulk of our actions are done automatically, and the whole trend of our life is established. Habit cuts a pathway from the brain through the nerve-centers, until after a time a thing is done almost mechanically. We do not stop to think how we will walk when we want to go anywhere. We have laboriously acquired the art of walking, till it is done without any conscious attention. The law extends its sway over every region of life. We have gone on doing acts and making judgments along a certain line till it could be foretold what we will do on any one occasion. No wonder that all moralists make much of the importance of the formation of habits. It is the way character is formed, and life is moulded, and destiny is fixed.

We usually hear of the evil of this great force, the power of bad habits and the difficulty of breaking them. Habit is spoken of as if it were a diabolic influence menacing us on every side. We forget that it is a law of life designed for its best interests. We forget that it is full of good and blessing, and is meant not to destroy but to conserve and strengthen human life. If this force is meant as a preservative, it is in its deepest intention an inducement to good habit; and the law is as strong on this side as on the other. It ought always to be remembered that the odds are on the side of health and good; and in every sincere moral endeavor we put both nature and God on our side. If by reason of use evil can lay hold and grasp the mastery, so by reason of use good also grows—faith, and love, and moral vigor, and spiritual vision. By reason of use good habits attain and secure and increase good.

*From Professor Black's volume entitled "Work" published in 1903 and here printed by kind permission of the publishers, The Fleming H. Revell Company.

There is no habit more important than the habit of work, because it is open to all of us in our place and degree, and because to most the working hours mean a big slice of our lives.

. . . Nothing will make up for the want of this habit of work, either in the particular line or in the effect on the character. No brilliance or quickness or cleverness or special aptitude can make up for want of it. There is a profound truth in the old fables, like that of the hare beaten by the tortoise even in its own line of running. Sir Joshua Reynolds, who preached this doctrine untiringly, says in his Second Discourse on the Method of Study: "If you have great talents industry will improve them; if you have but moderate abilities industry will supply their deficiency. Nothing is denied to well-directed labor; nothing is to be obtained without it. Not to enter into metaphysical discussions on the nature or essence of genius, I will venture to assert that assiduity unabated by difficulty and a disposition eagerly directed to the object of its pursuit, will produce effects similar to those which some call the result of natural powers." There should be some necessary qualification here, especially in speaking about art. It might tempt some, who have no aptitude, to think that labor alone is enough for any branch of work.

There is truth in Hazlitt's criticism that industry alone will only produce mediocrity, and mediocrity in art is not worth the trouble of industry. Efforts of course may be misguided and end in inevitable failure. Application the most laborious can never take the place of the initial gift, without which high art is impossible. But allowing for this, Sir Joshua's preaching of industry and the persistent habit of labor may well be taken to heart. Careless, slovenly work is responsible for more failures in art than any other cause. Men trust to what they call their genius, and many a gifted artist has never come to his kingdom because he has never learned to toil. It is one of the subtlest temptations in all productive work, whether it be painting pictures, or writing books, or preparing sermons, or pursuing any subject of study, to trust to happy inspirations, with the result that desultory efforts alternate with long spells of indolence. It not only hurts the work, but it hurts the morale of the worker.

There is no finer lesson from the lives of many scientific workers of our time than that of the patient investigation and tireless labor with which they pursue their branch of truth. Darwin in a letter to Romanes refers to this as a necessity if a man is to advance any science at all. . . . Here in its own degree, in the sphere of scientific truth as in the sphere of spiritual truth, it is by reason of use that the senses are exercised to dis-

cern good and evil. To accept our work as part of our duty, to cultivate it as a habit, is to safeguard our lives from many a mistake and error, and even from many a sin. We are traitors to our opportunities and gifts unless we make them the servants of habit.

Many illustrations could be culled from the lives and writings of great men, showing how they cultivated this habit till it was ingrained both in their work and in their characters. Take just one other illustration, this time a very different type of man from Sir Joshua Reynolds or Darwin—Lord Macaulay, whose work is often ignorantly thought facile and shallow. One thing certainly in it is its amazing industry, the patience and energy with which he carried on his historical investigations, whether we accept his conclusions or not. Thackeray gives him deserved credit in this. "Take at hazard any three pages of the *Essays or History*: and glimmering below the stream of the narrative you, an average reader, see one, two, three, a half-score of allusions to other historical facts, characters, literature, poetry, with which you are acquainted. Your neighbor, who has *his* reading and *his* little stock of literature stowed away in his mind, shall detect more points, allusions, happy touches, indicating not only the prodigious memory and vast learning of this master, but the wonderful industry, the honest, humble, previous toil of this great scholar. He reads twenty books to write a sentence; he travels a hundred miles to make a line of description." This is no exaggeration. We see from his private journal the terrible toil he pledged himself to undertake for the writing of the second part of his history—visits to Holland, Belgium, Scotland, Ireland, France; ransacking Dutch and French archives; turning over thousands of pamphlets; exploring in libraries; soaking his mind in the literature of the period.

True success in working will only come from treating work itself as an art, the best methods of which have to be learned and practiced. A man must bring himself into discipline before he becomes a perfect instrument for his work. No great work of art is possible without previous training in the art of work. When the habit of industry is ingrained in a man's nature he has mastered the art, although his methods of working may be peculiar to himself. Illustrations from literature are specially valuable in treating of this subject, because it is a sphere in which a man is usually thought to be altogether dependent on intuition and inspiration. We speak vaguely of "genius" as explaining any achievement in writing; but we only need to know a little of the inner

literary history of any time or country to see what toil lies back of what we call genius.

Even those forms of art which appear most spontaneous, such as poetry and music; are not struck off at a flash, or if any single piece of work seems to be so struck off, that is made possible by years of past training. Improvisation can only be done by one who is a master of his art. Even Shakespeare, who is often spoken of as an improvisatore, was a careful artist, as can be seen by comparing the first edition of one of his plays with the later editions. This can also be seen in the remarkable growth and intellectual development displayed in the order of his works which has been at least approximately established by critics. Beginning with adaptations of other plays, improving upon every model he took, his growing power in dramatic art and in rich mellow wisdom can be traced.

To speak of any man as a careful artist does not mean that every piece of work needs to be retouched and gone over again and again with painstaking industry; but that the capacity to do anything with finish and delicacy, however easily, has come from previous years of training. Tennyson's *Crossing the Bar* was written in his eighty-first year on a day in October when the suggestion for it came to him. He showed the poem to his son, who said, "That is the crown of your life's work." He answered, "It came in a moment." But no one as a rule put such fastidious and exacting care into his work as did Tennyson, correcting and polishing and revising. In all great art we are deceived by the appearance of ease, with no joints and no marks of the file anywhere. We see the artist's finished work, but we do not see the hundreds of sketches made for that work, and all the training of eye and hand and taste without which the work would have been impossible. The capacities have been brought into efficiency by intense and persistent labor. When we look on a great completed work, such as Milton's *Paradise Lost*, or Gibbon's *Decline and Fall*, or Michael Angelo's Last Judgment—to take great achievements in different spheres—we are inclined to forget all that led up to them. We think of them as a kind of miracle outside cause and effect, and attribute them vaguely to the inspiration of genius. An unremitting habit of work was one of the secrets which made such achievements possible. This is not to say that if any man will only persist in similar intense toil he will rival Milton's epic but it does mean that without such toil the epic would never have seen the light of day. Only through habit will the intellectual concentration needed for any high work become part of a man's endowment.

Even style, which is thought to be in a special degree a heaven-born gift, can only be perfected by the scrupulous training of fastidious taste. It is difficult to say what are the qualities which give distinction to style—a delicacy of ear, sensitiveness to the music of words, a sort of instinctive knowledge of the value of vowels and consonants in the building of a sentence—but such a gift remains only an aptitude till it has received careful discipline. If any writer of our time could be called a “stylist” it was Robert Louis Stevenson, and we might just have accepted it as one of his natural gifts if he had not so frankly revealed the long training to which he subjected the gift. There were years of labor before he had his instrument ready for its work. Even after he attained fame he would write an article seven or eight times over, and in his early days he toiled terribly in learning to write, “playing the sedulous ape” to many masters. In a letter to a friend he wrote, “I imagine nobody had ever such pains to learn a trade as I had; but I slogged at it day in and day out; and I frankly believe (thanks to my dire industry) I have done more with smaller gifts than almost any man of letters in the world.” Genius cannot be explained as an infinite capacity to take pains, for without that something we call genius the pains will be wasted; but a passion for an art which shows itself in such a way is a presumptive evidence of genius, sufficient at least to go on with.

In the whole matter of habit, decision is the master-key. We must learn to act on the spur. The hardest thing is to begin, to overcome the inertia and mental sluggishness. Some men are always preparing for work, which usually means postponing any serious effort and ends in a mere waste of time. There are many ways of deluding ourselves about our industry, and ministering all the time to our innate indolence. Especially in intellectual work it is easy to put off beginning a task with the excuse that we are not ready for it, that we have not read and thought enough, that we are not in the mood at present, or that we need to make more preparation. We go on improving our implements for work which is never attempted, as if an artisan were to be perpetually sharpening his tools and never putting them to any practical use. The worst of it is that indecision like this has an effect on the character, and weakens the whole capacity. No new habit can be begun without a hard struggle, or continued without constant effort. It will be all the better if there is at the beginning some enthusiasm, a definite resolution to pursue some task in worthy fashion; but watchful and jealous care is

needed before the habit is formed. Later on, when the apprenticeship may be said to be completed, it works almost automatically. The laboriousness of any work is lessened by the dexterity which comes from habit. As we accustom ourselves to the work, we gain power not only over our material, but over ourselves. This at least is certain, that nothing is permanently secured to us till it passes into a habit. . . .

Another principle of the art of working is to accustom oneself to take advantage of portions of time that seem too small for serious work. The concentration which habit induces makes it possible to use even scraps of time for some intellectual interest or for some useful service. One of the secrets of Mr. Gladstone's untiring activity was his regularity and economy of time. His motto seemed to be, Never be doing nothing. At a railway station or at odd times, when others would be waiting listlessly, out would come the inevitable book to enrich his mind. In Newman Hall's *Autobiography* an incident is told of him in 1864, when a Cabinet Minister and one of the busiest of men. "The rector of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields visited one of his parishioners, a street sweeper, who was ill, and being asked if anybody had been to see him, replied 'Yes, Mr. Gladstone.' 'What Gladstone?' 'Why, Mr. Gladstone himself. He often speaks to me at my crossing, and missing me, he asked my mate if I was ill and where I lived, and so came to see me and read the Bible to me.' " It was the liberal following of the apostolic injunction, "As we have therefore opportunity, let us do good unto all men;" but the opportunity needs to be seized, bought up with the avidity of a merchant on the alert for a good purchase.

Success in the art of working depends very much on method. It is not possible, however, to dogmatize about what are the right methods, as here more than anywhere else one man's food is another man's poison. Anthony Trollope's methods of working would drive some authors crazy. He tells us in his *Autobiography* that when he commenced a new book he prepared a diary, and entered into it day by day the number of pages he wrote, so that if at any time he slipped into idleness for a day, the record was there staring him in the face and demanding increased labor to supply the deficiency. . . .

. . . . There have been men whose whole capacity to produce would be destroyed if they had to conform to these methods. The right method for a man is that which will enable him to do his best work. The one important thing is that he should learn the lesson of industry.



MARCH

As if to lift man's mind from baser things
The heavens employ now every swift caprice:
The threescore Winds and four they give release,
Whistling them on, lashing with heedless stings;
Frown follows smile, smile frown, in ceaseless rings;
Swift cirrus-shoals scud by—slow cumuli fleece,—
Hail-leaden thunder-caps Spring's sap-joy freeze,—
And then the sunshine all its gladness flings.
The chastened trees bow low but rise again,
Thrilled with new purpose, root and bark and grain;
The early flowers, love-chidden, close their eyes,
Then open smiling, ere the rain-drop dries;
And boyhood fancy takes its fledgling flights
Watching the March sky filled with tugging kites.

—Charles Elmer Jenney.



TO MEMBERS OF THE SHAKESPEARE CLASS

Possible experiences of the members of 1912, the graduating class, might be expressed in Shakespearean language as follows:

The reader who fails to finish before Recognition Day:
"It was my negligence not weighing well the end."

President of a Circle, addressing fellow classmates:
"Be of good cheer; they shall no more prevail than we give way to."

The warning to an over-confident reader: "You do think you are not what you are."

Another gentle warning: "Be wary then. Best safety lies in fear."

The beginning of a song of victory: "For courage mounteth with occasion."

The key to the whole situation: "He persists as if his life lay on't."



MORE SEALS

Graduate members of the Guild of the Seven Seals are beginning to look with rather more than hungry glances at that "Highest Order" known as the Inner Circle. If you are a graduate and do not possess a copy of the little brown-covered pamphlet called "Special Course Hand Book," by all means send to the Chautauqua office and secure one. The wealth of courses already set forth in it are alluring enough to tempt even the rather sluggish member who is resting on past laurels, and each year a few new courses are added to remind every progressive member that the C. L. S. C. is keeping well ahead.



POINTS FROM A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

"The Philosophy of Opposition." This is the phrase by which the new President of Princeton University, Dr. John Grier Hibben, describes the views of the German philosopher, Fichte. His theory was, in the words of Dr. Hibben, "that in the making of a man, power is born of opposition; that struggle begets strength; that resistance provokes vigor of body and of spirit, and that the very obstacles to progress make progress possible."

This is genuine Chautauqua doctrine—any readers who come across Dr. Hibben's little volume of essays called "A Defence of Prejudice" will find it full of fresh and stimulating thoughts.



JANE ADDAMS

Jane Addams, whose "Twenty Years at Hull-House,"

the fourth book read in the American Year, tells the story of the author's life in terms of spiritual as well as of physical experience, was born in Illinois and in Illinois has passed the years of her usefulness. The time of preparation for the work that dawned upon her even in childhood was spent in part at Rockford College and in Europe, while she was growing to an understanding of the way in which she might fit her personal need for giving service to the needs of those of less opportunity. A recital of Miss Addams's work as head of Hull-House, as street inspector, as a member of the School Board and of numberless associations having to do with industrial and social reform gives but an inadequate idea of the scope of her activities or of the extent of her influence. Her sympathy, her initiative, her sanity of thought and action, her wisdom have made her the foremost woman in the United States.



Verses Worth Memorizing

THE CHAMBERED NAUTILUS

This is the ship of pearl, which, poets feign,
Sails the unshadowed main,—
The venturous bark that flings
On the sweet summer wind its purple wings
In gulfs enchanted, where the Siren sings,
And coral reefs lie bare,
Where the cold sea-maids rise to sun their streaming hair.

Its webs of living gauze no more unfurl;
Wrecked is the ship of pearl!
And every chambered cell,
Where its dim dreaming life was wont to dwell,
As the frail tenant shaped his growing shell,
Before thee lies revealed,—
Its irised ceiling rent, its sunless crypt unsealed!

Year after year beheld the silent toil
 That spread his lustrous coil;
 Still, as the spiral grew,
 He left the past year's dwelling for the new,
 Stole with soft step its shining archway through,
 Built up its idle door,
 Stretched in his last-found home, and knew the old no more.

 Thanks for the heavenly message brought by thee,
 Child of the wandering sea,
 Cast from her lap, forlorn!
 From thy dead lips a clearer note is born
 Than ever Triton blew from wreathéd horn!
 While on mine ear it rings,
 Through the deep caves of thought I hear a voice that sings:

 Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
 As the swift seasons roll!
 Leave thy low-vaulted past!
 Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
 Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
 Till thou at length art free,
 Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea!

—*Oliver Wendell Holmes.*

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NEWS FROM CIRCLES AND READERS

"Today I am going to read you some of the pleasant letters that have been coming to my desk lately," said Pen-dragon, taking up a handful of envelopes. "Here, for instance, is a correspondent from Jersey Shore, Pennsylvania, who says:

"I have been a reader of the C. L. S. C. for many, many years; and I have THE CHAUTAUQUANS when they were the old, large, brown-covered ones, stored in the attic now as curios. I have completed the course four times but have never been able to go to Chautauqua to graduate. I have been instrumental in inducing many to take the course of reading. This is the twenty-eighth year of the Circle here in Jersey Shore and some of the first year's students are grandmothers now and still belong to

the Circle. We have had Bishop Vincent visit us twice—last time we gave him a reception and I was honored by being chosen to give him an address of welcome. Last year Dr. Howell visited us and we hope some time Miss Kimball may. We did so enjoy the Cathedrals from her pen. We are finding the reading on South America very interesting.

"Here," said Pendragon, "is a note from a group of new readers who have found themselves converted to the systematic habit. It is written from 'Schenectady, New York,' and says:

"We are all enjoying the work. As all but one of the ladies are housekeepers, and most of them without maids, we planned at our preliminary meeting to bring our work to the meetings, which occur every two weeks, between three and five or five-thirty o'clock, and to serve very simple refreshments. Now for the most important thing—the work. The ladies were timid about 'reading any papers,' or in any way taking hold. What we are doing now is to meet at three. The hostess of the last meeting acts as leader. She reads the roll call. Each lady answers with a quotation from the prescribed reading, or a magazine article bearing on a subject under consideration. We all become very much interested, there are lively discussions, and usually we forget all about the needle work we brought and—before we realize it, tea is served and we must go home, for it is a rule we set ourselves to be out of our hostess's house at five-thirty. We are especially interested in International Peace and the South American Journey. If things continue as they have begun I think we shall all have certificates at the end of the required time, even though few of the ladies felt at first that they could give the required time.'

"South Africa has been active in C. L. S. C. work for a long time," continued Pendragon, and I know that you'll be interested in these two letters. The secretary of the South African C. L. S. C. writes from Witzihoek, Orange Free State, Africa."

"It may interest you and your readers to know that the South African Chautauqua still lives, grows, and continues to do good work out here. We just had our seventh yearly Assembly at Kestell, Orange Free State, which was a very great success. The only difference between you and us is the language, because we use both English and Dutch, although Dutch predominates. In spirit and aim we are one. Through our C. L. S. C. we have learned to know about you in America more than we ever did before. We study your history, literature, and social problems. We find so much in your history that corresponds with our own, that we like you for that and besides as a young nation we find that we can learn much from your advanced civilization.'

"Now I am going to read a letter that was written to an ardent worker who was at Chautauqua, New York, last summer. It is dated Red Dragons, Oudtshome, Cape Province, South Africa."

"I was very pleased to have your letter from Chautauqua. How I wish I could have been there! I'm sure if I do turn up there in 1913 to graduate you'll do me the honour to come to see me go through the Golden Gate. I have received this year's certificate and my corrected papers which fetched me 95 per cent. My boy was so amused at me when, on opening the paper, I exclaimed in disappointment, "Only 95 per cent." "Why, Mammy," he cried, "only 95, isn't that good enough?" He is going to frame the certificates for our study-library-sitting room."

"So many circles have been interested in starting libraries that I am sure all of you will like to hear what the people at Florala, Alabama, have been doing. This letter came to me some months ago, so probably the new institution is opened by this time."

"We are still working on the Library. However, we have furnished the room very neatly, have a book case and a number of books donated. The Selma Circle sent a nice box of books and a few clubs have sent single books. We are now ready for our "Opening" as soon as we form a Library Association and get the cards and slips. It takes time to get information and get things in running order."

"The Safford, Alabama, Circle is full of good work and of local usefulness," went on Pendragon. "You can see from the picture what a happy group it is." "That is quite evident," laughed the Man Across the Table. "Do you happen to know," he went on, "how the arrangements for the celebration of 87's twenty-fifth anniversary are coming on?" "The secretary is having pleasant letters from old friends all the time," returned Pendragon. "She sent me a collection of clippings from them the other day."

From California—"Yes, I graduated at South Farmington, then from Leland Stanford University; am married but still am interested in the C. L. S. C. and the Pansy Class."

From Kentucky—"We celebrate the 27th anniversary of the C. L. S. C. the same year, but will not let that keep us from the Mother Chautauqua. We are a live class, even if old—count us in."

From Kansas—"Yes, I remember the four girls in white. They made me a paper pansy which I shall take with me in 1912! The Chautauqua Course was my first opportunity to get an outlook, a light or something to help me to understand the nothingness of this mortal material existence and the Allness of Mind. I try each day to add something to my store. I am so hungry to visit the dear old place again."

From Indiana—"Your card at hand and I was glad. As the saying goes, 'Once a Chautauquan, always a Chautauquan.'"

From Massachusetts—"Your card traveled a long way to find me. I was burned out of my home in Chelsea in 1908 after living there forty years—and with it went my diploma with its many seals."

"We'll see that she has a duplicate given her when she reaches Chautauqua next summer," said Pendragon.

"Winfield," said a Kansan, "has had a revival of C. L. S. C. enthusiasm. Perhaps it should be called an 'extension' of enthusiasm to a larger number of people, for Winfield Chautauquans have never lost enthusiasm. I don't believe Chautauquans ever do. I have never known or heard of a 'backslider'." "Nor we, nor we," came cries from all over the room. "The revival began with the splendid work of Miss Hamilton, the Field Secretary, at the Assembly in July, and was further developed through the activities of the permanent office which the Winfield board established and which has enrolled about fifty members of the Jane Addams Class beside many of the old readers. Winfield alone has three Circles and some independent readers and informal groups." "When we say 'Winfield' as applied to matters Chautauquan," broke in another Kansan, "we mean more than the beautiful little town on the Walnut. We mean the territory of the Island Park Assembly; and when I remind you that Island Park has graduated about four hundred people, which is nearly half of all the Kansas graduates for the past twenty-five years, you will know that we have been giving some attention to the reading course." "Bishop Vincent says it is the 'soul' of the Chautauqua movement, so you ought to," commented Pendragon. "The Winfield territory includes," went on the first speaker, "well, not so large an area as it used to, for there are more Assemblies, but it includes—" "Sylvia, for instance," cried a fresh, clear voice. "Yes, Sylvia carried off one of the diplomas for 1911. And when that diploma reached the little town of West Winfield it excited so much enthusiasm that a vigorous Circle of sixteen sprang into being, all but two, members of the Jane Addams Class." "An Englishman born and reared in London has been a valuable help," added the Sylvian, "especially in the study of the first book of this year." "Sylvia is one of the new Circles," explained still another Kansan. "The older Circles, too, are showing fine interest. College Hill Circle in Winfield, after a lapse of two years, was hungry for the reading again and was reorganized amid great rejoicing at a social meeting early in October. A remarkable member of this circle is one of the graduates of 1911, a former college professor, now seventy-three years old. At his suggestion this Circle gave a thorough reading to Bishop Vincent's latest Baccalaureate sermon, using it by para-

graphs for a roll call. The class greatly enjoyed the richness of this sermon, as they discovered it for themselves, nugget by nugget."

"We of the Charles Dickens Circle of Arkansas City, which is joined to Winfield by interurban," began a member, "think that it is distinguished by several superior advantages. One of these is its much traveled president, who has seen most of the important countries of the world, and is, of course, familiar with the sources of culture in these lands. She regards Chautauqua as the best means for general culture that she has found. In her travels last summer she made a motor trip through England. Imagine the interest she added to the study of the 'Twentieth Century American'!" "Wichita, too, belongs to us," continued the first enthusiast, "though as a city she is bigger than we are. Wichita last summer sent us a graduate having thirteen seals including the Crown Seal. This achievement broke all records in seal work at Island Park." "Blackwell also belongs to the Winfield territory," said an Oklahoman, "and is a Circle to be proud of. These Chautauquans have managed an excellent lecture course for years and have raised the money and purchased a good nucleus for a city library. They have made Blackwell know that Chautauqua means culture for the people."

"I belong to Winfield too, but I am reading alone in Topeka this winter," said a man with a legal air and a strong, square jaw. "This is my ninth year. Each year is new. There has been no duplication. A Chautauqua reader gets the advantage of careful examination of reading matter by educated men, and much time is saved thereby to the reader."

"I am much interested in your mention of Miss Hamilton," said the secretary of the Vincent Circle of Pacific Grove, California. "We cannot speak too highly of her work. She lectured for us twice to good audiences and the assembly management would only be too glad to secure her services next July." "We all admire her tremendously," cried an eager voice. "Our Vincent Circle is doing well this year, and showing great enthusiasm in the work. At our







Plantation Circle, Safford, Alabama



Centerville (Tennessee) Circle—taken at the house of a member
at Vernon, Tennessee



Graduates of the Class of 1911 at Island Park, Winfield, Kansas.
They are keeping on with their reading



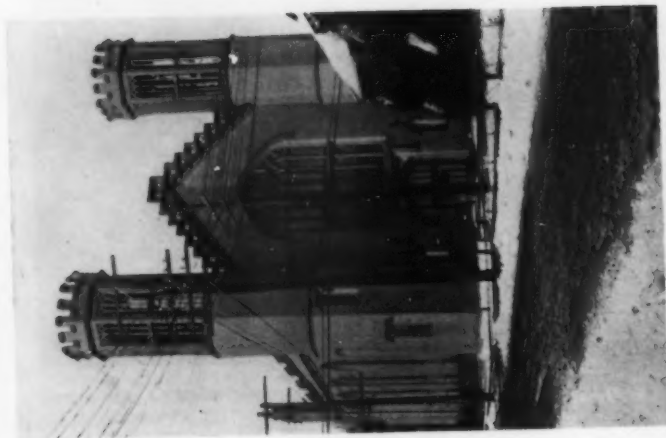
1911 Alumni Banquet, Recognition Day, July 10, Winfield, Kansas,
Miss Meddie O. Hamilton, Field Secretary, C. L. S. C.,
Toastmistress



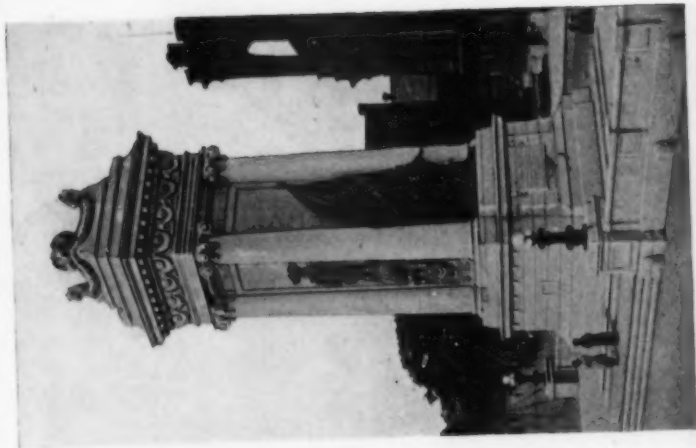
Chautauqua Park, Island Park, Winfield, Kansas



Alpha C. L. S. C. of Enid, Oklahoma, organized in 1899, and the oldest in the State. Picture taken on Guest Day, May, 1911.
First row, Class of 1911



First M. E. Church, Bridgeport, Connecticut



Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument, Syracuse,



last meeting, after the regular work for the evening was finished we resolved ourselves into a Christmas and New Year's party, sang songs, told jokes, exchanged New Year's presents, partook of refreshments, and closed by singing

"Chautauqua days we love, my dear,
Chautauqua days we sing,
We'll take a course of reading yet,
Chautauqua is the thing."

"We people of Palisade live where the finest peaches in the world grow," said a Coloradoan, "and we are so accustomed to fine things that it doesn't surprise us a bit that we have an ultra-fine circle." "Colorado is a land of splendors," said Pendragon. "We did not organize until October, but we had no trouble in securing thirty-six members. We meet once a week at the different homes, and as we have had delightful weather this winter there has been nothing to hinder everybody's coming every time." "Our Christmas guest meeting was tremendously successful," said another Palisadean who happened in just at this moment. "We gathered in a charmingly decorated room and had speeches and music and a jolly little farce to listen to, and good things to eat. Between sixty-five and seventy members and guests were present and the Chautauqua Circle received an impetus which advanced it in the opinion of Palisade people as a factor in the educational and social life of the community." "I'm for the larger C. L. S. C. work now and always," exclaimed the first enthusiast amid approving applause.



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

*"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."*



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.	OPENING DAY—October 1.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.	BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.	MILTON DAY—December 9.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.	COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.	LANIER DAY—February 3.
	SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
	LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
	SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
	ADDISON DAY—May 1.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READINGS FOR APRIL

FIRST WEEK—MARCH 25-APRIL 1

"Chile" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Reading Journey through South America," VII).

"The Moving Picture and the Funny Side" (Journalism and Humor) (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "As We See Ourselves," VII).

"Sanitary Engineering" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "American Engineering," VII).

SECOND WEEK—APRIL 1-8

"What a Life Work was Built Upon" (Addams's "Twenty Years at Hull-House," Chapters I, II, III, IV).

THIRD WEEK—APRIL 8-15

"Early Problems and Undertakings" (Addams, Chapters V, VI, VII, VIII).

FOURTH WEEK—APRIL 15-22

"Chicago Awakens to Social Interest" (Addams, Chapters IX, X, XI).

FIFTH WEEK—APRIL 22-29

This extra week may be utilized for reviews, for the elaboration of topics which have been crowded during the year, and for the presentation of supplementary material.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

MARCH 25-APRIL 1

1. *Map Talk*. "Chile."
2. *Roll Call*. "Brief biographies of great Chileans" (as Magellan, Valdivia, Bulnes, Montt, Perez, Pinto, Balmaceda, Zañartú, Vicuña, etc.).
3. *Report* of a committee appointed to investigate the sanitation of your town.
4. *Talk*. "How a Newspaper is Made" (This may be an address by a newspaper man, or it may be the result of a personal investigation of the local press, supplemented by reading. See "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature" under "Journalism" for a wealth of suggestions. Some of the topics to be taken up should be "How news is gathered;" "How news is written;" "The editorial page;" "The manufacture.")
5. *Debate* on "The Value of the Comic Supplement."
6. *Reading* from "Aspects of Journalism" by Rollo Ogden in the *Atlantic*, July, 1906, or "Dramatic Literature and Theatric Journalism" by Clayton Hamilton in *The Forum* for February, 1909.

APRIL 1-8

1. *Composite Story* of "Chile's Relations with Bolivia and Peru" (Akers's "A History of South America;" Clark's "Continent of Opportunity;" Dawson's "South American Republics," part II; Pepper's "Panama to Patagonia.")
2. *Book Review* of "Independence of Chile" by A. S. M. Chisholm.
3. *Talk*. "Illustrated Journalism" ("After the World's News with a Camera" by Fitz-Gerald in *Harper's Weekly*, February 16,

- 1907; "Illustrated Weekly Papers" in *International Studies* for May, 1905; "Pictorial Journalism" by Richards in *World Today*, August, 1905; for current history in cartoons see numbers of *Current Literature*, *Review of Reviews*, etc.; "Oppen, Outcalt & Company" by McCardell in *Everybody's* for June, 1905).
4. *Tributes* to Lincoln's influence—original and selected.
 5. *Discussion* on the value of European training for American girls.
 6. *Paper*. "Alexander Selkirk and the Island of Juan Fernandez;" illustrated by readings from "Robinson Crusoe."

APRIL 8-15

1. *Historical Sketch*. "Chile and the United States" (Akers; Dawson; "Spirited Foreign Policy of the United States" by Peck in the *Bookman*, June, 1905).
2. *Roll Call*. "Great American Journalists."
3. *Debate* on "The Value of Muckraking."
4. *Paper*. "History, Aims, and Methods of Social Settlements" (see many articles on different phases listed under "Social Settlements" in the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.")
5. *Book Review*. "Newer Ideals of Peace" by Jane Addams.
6. *Recitation*. "Humor" by J. K. Bangs in *Putnam's* for October, 1907.

APRIL 15-22

1. *Roll Call*. "Industries and Resources of Chile" (Akers; Clark; Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean;" Pepper; "Bituminous Coal of Chile" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for April, 1911; "Chemical Laboratory of Nature" by Winter in *World Today*, February, 1911; "Chile in 1910" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for August, 1911).
2. *Reading* from "The New Era in Our Relations with Latin America" by Welliver in *Munsey's* for October, 1911.
3. *Roll Call*. "Quotations from Great American Humorists."
4. *Discussion* on "Co-operation between Capital and Labor."
5. *Report* of committee appointed to investigate local work for immigrants.
6. *Book Review*. "The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets" by Jane Addams.
7. *Reading*. "You can't be funny all the time" by Jerome K. Jerome in *Cosmopolitan* for May, 1906.



TRAVEL CLUB

Travel Clubs should be provided with Hale's "Practical Guide to Latin America," with a large map of South America, and with individual outline maps of South America and of each country in South America which each member may fill in as the study progresses. Photographs, picture postcards, or pictures in books of all buildings and places mentioned should be exhibited.

A general bibliography of the Reading Journey through South America will be found in the September Magazine. If any clubs or libraries can provide but two books for supplementary reading they should be Dawson's "The South American Republics" and Hale's "The South Americans." Of great contemporary interest is

the "Bulletin" published by the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. This is a handsomely illustrated monthly magazine whose subscription price is \$2.00 a year. Every Travel Club will find a subscription worth while.

FIRST WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "Chile."
2. *Roll Call*. "Brief biographies of great Chileans" (as Magellan, Valdivia, Bulnes, Montt, Perez, Pinto, Balmaceda, Zañartú, Vicuña, etc.).
3. *Summary* of "Cardinal Pole or the Days of Philip and Mary," W. Harrison Ainsworth.
4. *Historical Sketch*. "Chile's Relations with Bolivia and Peru" (Akers's "A History of South America;" Clark's "Continent of Opportunity;" Dawson's "South American Republics," Part II; Pepper's "Panama to Patagonia.")
5. *Paper*. "Chile and the United States" (Akers; Dawson; "Spirited Foreign Policy of the United States" by Peck in *Bookman*, June, 1905).
6. *Reading* from "The Toll of the Straits" by Furlong in *Outing* for October, 1911.

SECOND WEEK

1. *Composite Description*. "Population of Chile" (Akers; Pepper, etc.).
2. *Book Review* of "Independence of Chile" by A. S. M. Chisholm.
3. *Original Story*. "Adventures in the Uspallata Pass" (Ruhl's "The Other Americans;" Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean; Clark).
4. *Paper*. "Chilean Commerce" (Akers; "Commercial Relations of Chile" by Janes in *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Philadelphia, for May, 1911; "Foreign Commerce in Chile" in *Pan-American Bulletin*, April, 1911; "South American Trade" by Davies in *Advertising and Selling*).
5. *Talk*. "Christ of the Andes"—history, significance, artistic merit.
6. *Reading* from "The Andean Garden of the Gods" by Alvord in *the Century* for September, 1911.

THIRD WEEK

1. *Paper*. "Industries and Resources of Chile" (Akers; Clark; Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean;" Pepper; "Bituminous Coal of Chile" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for April, 1911; "Chemical Laboratory of Nature," by Winter in *World Today*, February, 1911.
2. *Reading* from "The New Era in Our Relations with Latin America" by Welliver in *Munsey* for October, 1911.
3. *Letter of Introduction* from an inhabitant of Valparaíso to a visitor about to see its sights (Akers; Clark; Curtis; Pepper; Ruhl).
5. *Composite Story* of "Robinson Crusoe."
6. *Reading* from "New England in South America" by J. G. Van Marter in *Outlook* for June 22, 1907.

FOURTH WEEK

1. *Paper*. "Education in Chile" (Akers; Clark).
2. *Review* of the sketch of Chile published by the International Bureau of American Republics in June, 1909.

3. *Letter Home* from Santiago (Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean" and "Capitals of Spanish America;" Pepper; Hale's "Guide;" Ruhl's "The Other Americans;" Wrights "Republic of Chile.")
4. *Description* of our fleet in Chilean harbors (see *Review of Reviews*, May, 1908).
5. *Roll Call*. "What has interested me most in the study of Chile?"
6. *Reading* "Chile in 1910" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for August, 1911.



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS

AS WE SEE OURSELVES. VII. JOURNALISM AND HUMOR.

1. What would be the impression of a visitor from Mars concerning our newspapers? 2. What is the right way of interpreting the newspaper picture of American life? 3. How numerous are the periodicals of the United States? 4. Who first developed news-gathering and how has it been extended? 5. What development was due to Horace Greeley? 6. To Charles Dana? 7. For what aspects of journalism are Pulitzer and Hearst responsible? 8. Under what three heads does the contents of newspapers fall? 9. Discuss news matter. 10. Who is responsible for the quality of the journal? 11. What should be the atmosphere of the editorial section? 12. Who are the foremost editorial writers of today? 13. How do the salaries of editorial writers compare with those of other members of the staff? 14. How does a newspaper make its income? 15. What does the advertiser pay for? 16. Cite the *New York Times* as a special instance. 17. Give examples of the advertisers' power over the rest of the paper. 18. Study the advertising. 19. Compare the quality of the news and editorial columns. 20. How may the newspaper share in public service? 21. What are some of the other considerations that affect the attitude of a newspaper? 22. Follow the comparison of the *New York Times* with three European papers: a) in space given to news, editorials, advertising; b) in space devoted to different kinds of news. 23. Compare the number of newspapers published in the four countries. 24. How are the weeklies and monthlies more independent than the dailies? 25. How did the *Outlook* treat the sugar investigation? 26. How do the editorials compare? 27. What has been the growth of the monthly magazines? 28. What are the four currents of their influence? 29. Describe the fact story. 30. Is this feature peculiar to the United States? 31. Sum up the "quality" of the magazines. 32. How extensive is American humor? 33. Who are some of the best known newspapers humorists of today? 34. What paradox is proved by our humorists? 35. What are some of the characteristics of American humor?

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH SOUTH AMERICA. CHAPTER VII. CHILE.

1. To what was the name Chile given originally? 2. What did the first governor call the country? 3. How was the name 'Chile' confirmed? 4. Describe the strange topography of Chile. 5. Describe the double mountain formation. 6. Compare the height of the Andean volcanoes with that of Etna and Vesuvius. 7. What

historical event occurred in these mountains? 8. What is the importance of the Uspallata tunnel? 9. What impression is left by Sir Martin Conway's description? 10. What is the coloring of these mountains? 11. What is the aspect as the altitude of the mountains decreases? 12. What is the nature of the islands from Chiloe down? 13. Compare the Chilean and Norwegian fjords. 14. What is the Chilean vegetation? 15. What is the general tone of the southernmost point of the continent? 16. What contrasts did Sir Martin Conway observe in his visit to Sarmiento? 17. Contrast Chile's zones. 18. Speak of Chile's struggle with Bolivia. 19. What are the activities of Antofagasta? 20. How is the trip made from Antofagasta to Valparaiso? 21. What peculiarities of Valparaiso are due to its enforced shape? 22. What is the population? 23. What is the general appearance of Santiago? 24. What is El Cerro de Santa Lucia like? 25. What is Santiago's hall of fame? 26. What are some of the other attractions of the city? 27. Compare Santiago and Valparaiso.

AMERICAN ENGINEERING. CHAPTER VII. SANITARY ENGINEERING.

1. What is the modern attitude toward health? 2. Cite Birmingham. 3. What is the engineer's part in bringing about public good health? 4. Define sanitary engineering. 5. Under what three heads does it fall? 6. Why are people careless about ventilation? 7. What was the former notion about carbon dioxide? 8. What is thought now to be the cause of discomfort from lack of ventilation? 9. Explain the behavior of perspiration. 10. In what does adequate ventilation consist? 11. What advantage is shown on the practical sides? 12. Quote the illustrations. 13. What is the simplest method of ventilation? 14. How is that improved upon? 15. What is "conditioned" air? 16. How is it done by water sprays? 17. To what extent is it cooled? 18. What is meant by a large water consumption? 19. Compare the amount per capita in the cities mentioned. 20. How is the amount of sewage to be disposed of calculated? 21. What is the estimated amount of water used per capita in towns and cities? 22. What is the action of the prudent engineer? 23. What is said of the disposal of storm water? 24. What are other features to be considered in designing sewers? 25. What difficulty confronts the engineer of the inland city? 26. Describe the sewage disposal system of Baltimore.



SEARCH QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS

1. What valuable expedition was financed by James Gordon Bennett? 2. Name five plays written by George Ade.
1. Who is Sir Martin Conway?
1. Who was John Quincy Adams? 2. What is the chemical symbol for carbon dioxide?



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MARCH READINGS

1. Columbia University. 2. Clergyman. 3. "Life." 4. The Roman Church. 5. Harvard. 6. "Atlantic Monthly."
1. A pattern.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "TWENTY YEARS AT HULL-HOUSE"

Chapter I. 1. Why are the early impressions that are recorded all connected with the writer's father? 2. What childhood decision about the "horrid little houses" bore fruit in after years? 3. What example is given of an early sense of responsibility? 4. Give instances of unusual expressions of daughterly affection. 5. What emphasis was laid on mental integrity? 6. What is the attitude of the child toward nature? 7. Toward death? 8. What "valuable possession" came from thought about Mazzini's death?

Chapter II. 1. What are some of the recollections connected with the Civil War? 2. What was symbolized in the journey to Old Abe? 3. What influence did the memory of Mr. Lincoln exert? 4. What tribute to Mr. Addams was recalled by his daughter in connection with the sweat shop bill? 5. What especial character emphasizes the admiration of Lincoln by his contemporaries? 6. How was Lincoln's power of utilizing past experiences used as a lesson at Hull-House? 7. Speak of vision and wisdom and high purpose as motivating labor for human equality. 8. What aspect of democratic government was made clear by Lincoln?

Chapter III. 1. What was the "atmosphere" at Rockford Seminary? 2. What were some of the school girl experiences? 3. What effort was made to advance Rockford Seminary? 4. What power useful in Hull-House experiences was gained by school experiences in withstanding pressure? 5. What was the school girl receipt for Justice? 6. What enthusiasm for science had arisen?

Chapter IV. 1. What was the East London experience? 2. What conviction did Miss Addams reach about the first generation of college women? 3. What was the revulsion of feeling against cultural pursuits when disconnected from the conduct test? 4. What part did enthusiasm for democracy play in bringing about church membership? 5. What instances of misery in this country and in Europe added to mental wretchedness? 6. What impression was conveyed by the cathedral at Ulm. 7. What contrast is brought out in the account of the lectures on the catacombs? 8. What was the early idea of the Settlement? 9. What illumination was shed by the bull-fight? 10. What does Tolstoy mean by "the snare of preparation?"

Chapter V. 1. Who was Miss Addams's companion in the opening of Hull-House? 2. What was the theory of reciprocity with which Hull-House was opened? 3. How was the house discovered? 4. What belief was lived up to in the furnishing of the house? 5. Describe Halsted Street. 6. Recall some of the early visitors and experiences. 7. What has been the importance of the development of hand crafts? 8. What is the Settlement's attitude toward old people? 9. In what way is Settlement life "natural?"

Chapter VI. 1. What has been the attitude of the best known of the early Settlement workers toward the Settlement? 2. Summarize the paper on "The Subjective Necessity for Social Settlements" under the three heads mentioned on page 125.

Chapter VII. 1. What was the history of the Hull-House coffee-house? 2. What was the teaching drawn from the coffee-

house experience? 3. What was at the basis of the experiments in co-operation? 4. What circumstance attended the housing of the Jane Club? 5. What were some of the co-operative enterprises of the early nineties? 6. What has been the progress of co-operation? 7. What were some of the experiences that affected judgments of what is called crime and vice? 8. Why does the first building erected for Hull-House have especial interest? 9. What theory of universal good will was developed in connection with the Settlement idea? 10. Why were residents drawn to Hull-House?

Chapter VIII. 1. What were some of the cases of old age brought to the attention of the Settlement? 2. What were some of the experiences of the winter following the World's Fair? 3. What was the lesson learned from the case of the young man who worked on the canal? 4. What were some of the neighborhood activities of Hull-House? 5. Who were some of the neighbors?

Chapter IX. 1. What was the spirit of the period between 1890 and 1900? 2. What was the reason for starting "The Working People's Social Science Club"? 3. What was the tenor of the social discussion? 4. What was the influence of the World's Fair? 5. What was Miss Addams's defense of free speech? 6. What is the untechnical definition of socialism? 7. By what means were some of the economic discussions carried through? 8. Place trade-unionists according to Mill's classification. 9. Connect the church of that period with the labor movement. 10. How may the decade be characterized? 11. What is the attitude of the Settlement toward social unrest and spiritual impulse?

Chapter X. 1. What instances called the attention of the Hull-House residents to the evils of child labor? 2. What was the result of the investigations of the committee of the Illinois legislature appointed to look into Chicago conditions? 3. What aid was lent by the General Federation of Women's Clubs? 4. What was the course of the eight-hour law? 5. What is understood by mature legislation? 6. Why was labor legislation in Illinois fifteen years ago contrary to the traditions of the state? 7. What is said of factory legislation? 8. Of trades-unions and sweating? 9. Of the Consumers' League? 10. Of organizations of women workers? 11. Give instances to show that the labor movement is appreciated as a social movement and not a class struggle. 12. Discuss the Pullman strike. 13. Speak of unemployment and employment bureaus. 14. What is the effect of a strike on public attention and opinion? 15. What is the ground for the Settlement's interest in labor struggles? 16. Give the standard of life argument leading to approval of State regulation.

Chapter XI. 1. What were some of the activities of Hull-House among the Italians? 2. What was Professor Masurek's feeling about his countrymen in America? 3. What object lay back of the establishment of the Hull-House Labor Museum? 4. What facts of industrial progress have been brought out by the exhibits? 5. What subtler benefits have resulted? 6. What was the tribute of the president of the club of necktie workers? 7. What value may lie in the instinct of workmanship? 8. What are some of the family tragedies from the point of view of the children? 9. What connection with American life may be brought about

for immigrant parents by children? 10. Speak of the relations of immigrants of different nationalities to each other.

Chapter XII. 1. What was the thought about living among the poor which resulted in the visit to Tolstoy? 2. What were some of the experiences in England? 3. Describe the visit to Tolstoy. 4. What is the divergence of democratic theory from actual fact? 5. In what respect was the experience of Hull-House at difference with Tolstoy's theory of non-resistance? 6. What questionings were aroused by the conversation with Tolstoy? 7. Describe the colony at Commonwealth.

Chapter XIII. 1. Describe the struggle with the garbage question and the work as inspector. 2. What were some of the housing conditions in the neighborhood? 3. Speak of public spirit and political machinery. 4. Of investigations into evils. 5. What has been the experience of Hull-House in co-operating with organizations already in existence? 6. Illustrate the passage of the Settlement from the concrete to the abstract. 7. What has become the attitude of the American Settlements toward organized charity?

Chapter XIV. 1. Give some of the instances in which Hull-House has co-operated with existing civic institutions. 2. Speak of Hull-House and the alderman. 3. How does a Settlement fulfil its most valuable function? 4. Illustrate by some of the experiences of Hull-House. 5. Speak of the Juvenile Protective Association. 6. What was the struggle of the Teachers' Federation? 7. Speak of public school administration and politics. 8. Speak of the newspaper attitude. 9. Of the effort in Chicago to secure the municipal franchise for women.

Chapter XV. 1. What was the early strength of social clubs at Hull-House? 2. Speak of the adaptability of the city child. 3. Of the standardizing of the pleasure clubs. 4. Of youth's demands. 5. Quote Walt Whitman. 6. Illustrate recognition of the concrete duty as a part of the social duty. 7. Distinguish between the cultivated and the uncultivated person. 8. What was some of the work of the social extension committee? 9. How does the amusement or self-improvement club broaden with a growing sense of social obligation? 10. What did Sir Walter Besant say about Hull-House?

Chapter XVI. 1. What has been the attitude of Hull-House toward art? 2. What have been some of the activities in painting and the crafts? 3. In music? 4. In the drama? 5. How was the "Troll's Holiday" produced?

Chapter XVII. 1. How has Hull-House come into touch with the Russian Revolution? 2. Speak of Prince Kropotkin. 3. Of the excitement in Chicago over the assassination of McKinley. 4. What is the present status of anarchy in America? 5. What gives the clearest lessons in citizenship? 6. What should be the attitude of a democratic government toward extradition for political offences? 7. Recall the argument with Gershuni; 8. the Gorki incident.

Chapter XVIII. 1. Why was education at Hull-House placed on a social basis? 2. What were some of the educational activities? 3. What opportunities are open for lecturers? 4. What has always been the noblest object of art? 5. Toward what end should the educative efforts of a Settlement be directed? 6. What have been some of the Hull-House efforts to give immediately

available education? 7. Why was the ban against military drill lifted? 8. What were the Columbian Guards? 9. What has been the educational reaction upon the Hull-House residents? 10. Why is diversity of creed among the residents desirable? 11. Say something of the personnel of the residents. 12. What is the Settlement's attitude toward the things that are "reasonable and goodly?"

BIBLIOGRAPHY

English Social Movements, Robert A. Woods, \$1.20 net; *Labor Problems*, Adams and Sumner, \$1.60; *Races and Immigrants in America*, John R. Commons, \$1.50; *Social Ideals in English Letters*, Vida D. Scudder, \$1.75; *Towards Social Reform*, S. A. and C. Barnett, \$1.50; *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets*, Jane Addams, \$1.25. The above books may be obtained at the prices quoted from the Chautauqua Book Store, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Talk About Books

THE LAND OF LIVING MEN. By Ralph Waldo Trine. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company. \$1.25.

The philosophy of practical living has been explained by Ralph Waldo Trine in several uplifting volumes since "In Tune with the Infinite," now in its one hundred thirteenth thousand, went to the hearts and understandings of earnest people. Now Mr. Trine has reverted to the interest in political and social science which sent him, a graduate student, to Johns Hopkins, and has written in "The Land of Living Men," a book calculated to make folk realize that it is not only their duty to acquaint themselves with civic and community affairs, but that it is greatly to their advantage to do so. The author has pointed to present conditions, has explained their causes, and has suggested methods by which abuses may be done away with and desirable conditions produced. Government is for the people, he says, and the people should bestir themselves and not let the work and the profits fall to a few. Housing, industrial accidents, the "white plague," poverty, prevention of all sorts, playgrounds, graft, public utilities, labor problems—all these and other topics with which the social worker is struggling today are developed by Mr. Trine before ways of cure are opened in a series of illuminating chapters on direct legislation, on increase of intelligence and religious feeling and patriotism, and on the securing of peace. Because the quality of national character is dependent on the quality of individual character it is imperative that the individual be uplifted if the nation would grow. The Golden Rule is the law to be followed and followed with understanding. Obedience to it means character development of the patriot and of his country.

THE SIEGE OF BOSTON. Allen French. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1911. \$1.50 net.

"The Siege of Boston" by Allen French is fascinating, giving a vivid account of the events leading up to the American Revolution and of that part which centered around Boston. The author describes the temperament of the Crown, the local governors, and the New Englanders, and tells the story of the annoying Writs of Assistance, the Stamp Act, and the Massacre of March 5, 1770. The familiar "Tea-Party" episode, its resulting new laws and new governor with his four regiments of the "King's Own," the increasing friction between Whig and Tory and soldiers, the town meetings, apparently law-abiding but at heart gatherings of sane, fair-minded patriots who understood the trend of events and who were planning to cope with the outcome, give the reader a sympathetic picture of the threatening aspect of affairs which led to the serious preparations for resistance to the King. While these preparations were simple and unorganized, yet the courage and spirit displayed by the Yankees in skirmishes culminating in the Battle of Bunker Hill astonished the English and showed them the true mettle with which they had to deal. The need of a properly organized army was now keenly realized and the Second Continental Congress chose as organizer and leader Col. George Washington, already recognized for his ability in the French and Indian War. That Washington proved splendidly efficient everyone knows, but perhaps some have forgotten the difficulties and seemingly insurmountable obstacles he overcame and the patient and skilful handling of his men and meager supplies which resulted in his ridding Boston of the British in 1776. To these matters the last five chapters of the book are devoted.

Mr. French's style is pleasant and makes the reader feel intimately acquainted with the historic old town, its environments, and its famous personnel. There are many familiar historical illustrations and the Old State House is utilized as frontispiece and cover feature.

THE OPENING UP OF AFRICA. By Sir H. H. Johnston. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents net.

By his varied diplomatic service in Africa, Sir H. H. Johnston is amply fitted to discuss the history of the land of his adoption. In previous volumes he has dealt with special questions; in "The Opening Up of Africa" he covers the general history of the continent from pre-historic times through the "classic" days of Egypt and Greece and Rome to the modern developments by the European countries who have used it and abused it. The names connected with Africa in honor or in shame—Livingston, Rhodes, Grenfell, King Leopold among them—are truthfully presented. Questions of commerce are intelligently answered.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS. John Franklin Brown, Ph. D. The Macmillan Co., New York. \$1.25 net.

"The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools" by John Franklin Brown is the direct fruit of the author's experience as exchange teacher of English at Halle. This position gave him exceptional opportunity to study the German school system.

Mr. Brown begins his work with an account of the Prussian school system in order to show the development of the German methods and institutions for the training of teachers. In Part I. he discusses the divisions of the Prussian schools into "elementary and higher schools, and the further subdividing of the same groups. Next he considers the certification of teachers in the higher schools from 1810 to the present time, tracing the successive changes in regulations which show increasing tendency toward explicit professional training. There is a valuable chapter about organization of the pedagogical institutions and their regulations, the time required for the study of theory and the practice teaching varying from one to two years. Of interest to the American teacher, but especially to teachers in the City of New York, is the chapter on the professional, financial, and social standing of teachers in general, and of the teachers of higher schools in particular. Part I. closes with a chapter on the "Impressions of the German System."

The subject of Part II. is "The Training of American Teachers." This includes a consideration of the "Certification of American Teachers," together with the sphere of American secondary schools, and the need of higher standards in the preparation and selection of teachers in this country. In this chapter the author carefully presents the requirements of the leading states of the Union for the certification of high school teachers. California seems to have the highest standard. No two states have exactly the same standards. This chapter is not only interesting, but enlightening. The subject of "Institutions for the Training of Secondary Teachers," such as the Normal School, the University, and the Special schools of Pedagogy, all receive their due share of attention. Of great interest is the brief but meaty chapter on the "Responsibility" for standards and training. It must, perforce, be divided among the state, the individual, the universities, and the local authorities. Treatment of the desired standard and the means of securing it follows in the next two chapters. A brief summary closes the book proper.

An appendix sets forth very concisely the standards in several other countries besides Germany and America. Last of all is an attractive bibliography.

Even one with long experience in secondary work may read this book with interest, perhaps just because of this experience, and lay the book aside with the feeling that comes from a broader outlook and from time well spent.

SELECT ORATIONS. Edited by Archibald McClelland Hall. New York: The Macmillan Company. Price 25c net.

Prefaced by an introduction which presents some of the principles of argumentation in the form of a model outline, and which gives admirable advice on the mechanics of delivery, Dr. Archibald McClelland Hall's group of famous orations is a useful collection for all who are addicted to speech-making. The arrangement of the selections is new for such a volume, the extracts being representative of Greece, Rome, France, England, and America, with examples from Hebrew and Early Church thought. The quotations from American oratory are varied and also illustrative of critical moments in our history.

The book is one of the convenient volumes of the Pocket Classics series.

A MODERN DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$.60 net.

The "Modern Dictionary" is a reliable and up-to-date little volume, valuable on account of its convenient size, its clear type and its great number of modern words and phrases, such as those used in connection with aviation. The spelling, definition, and pronunciation of words are according to the best authorities. Attention is called to common errors of spelling, pronunciation, and grammar. The arrangement is excellent, prefixes, abbreviations, foreign words and phrases, and proper names appearing in the body of the dictionary in their proper alphabetical order.

THE STOCK EXCHANGE. By Francis W. Hirst. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents net.

This account of The Stock Exchange by the editor of "The Economist" (London), is another of the readable volumes of the Home University Library. Its historic touch upon the activities of the New York, London and Continental Exchanges is interesting, its definitions are useful, its advice as to securities, investment and speculation is sane.

LIBERALISM. By L. T. Hobhouse. New York: Henry Holt & Co. London: Williams & Norgate. 75 cents net.

The place in modern theory and modern life of the liberalism which places social responsibility while it endows with liberty is the study which L. T. Hobhouse, Professor of Sociology in London University, places before his readers in "Liberalism." The elements of liberalism are defined, its history is sketched, and its future prophesied in a series of chapters meritorious in their condensed and popular handling of a vital theme.

THE TUDOR SHAKESPEARE. ROMEO AND JULIET. Edited by W. A. Neilson, Ph. D., and A. H. Thorndike, Ph. D., L. H. D. New York: The Macmillan Company. 35 cents net.

"Romeo and Juliet," edited by Prof. Neilson and Prof. Thorndike, is the initial volume in a new edition of Shakespeare. The text is the "Neilson Text" based on the second Quarto, and copyrighted by Prof. Neilson in 1906. It is the result of scholarly research aided by scholars of note. In addition to a carefully prepared text, are a few well chosen notes and variant readings followed by a valuable glossary. The volume is attractive in style as well as in matter and is a masterly tribute to our foremost dramatist.

PSYCHOLOGY, NORMAL AND ABNORMAL. By Warren E. Lloyd and Annie Elizabeth Cheney. New York: Roger Brothers. \$1.00. Basing their discussion of "Psychology, Normal and Abnormal," upon the hypothesis that mind and matter are opposite poles of the same thing, Warren E. Lloyd and Annie Elizabeth Cheney have written chapters on consciousness—always *self-consciousness*—through which the nature and characteristics of mind appear; on desire and its influence over the energy that brings accomplishment to pass; on action and reaction between the mental and the physical; on the relations of energy to emotion and its qualities of pleasure and pain; on imagery and its specializations, memory and imagination; on intuition and understanding; on periodicity; and on poise. The exposition is dispassionate, well-balanced, well-arranged. The concluding chapter (on Poise) states an enlargement of the basic hypothesis, namely, "We postulate immortal Units of Force, each having the power to generate a constant but limited amount of energy, and no two alike in quantity."

The presentation is clear and is delivered with conviction.

THE SPELL OF HOLLAND. By Burton E. Stevenson. Boston: L. C. Page & Company. \$2.50.

To write description that describes and at the same time chatters along like a story is not the gift of everyone who "takes his pen in hand" and Mr. Stevenson is to be complimented on achieving this delightful combination. His experiences and Betty's were not out of the ordinary and it is their very usualness that makes them eagerly read by the everyday traveller who has had others just like them. The illustrations from photographs taken by the author—and Betty—are ample in number and in range. CHAUTAUQUAN readers of George Wharton Edward's "Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land" in 1908 will be especially glad to refresh their memories with this new book.







Jacob Riis



Frederick C. Howe



Ida M. Tarbell
(*Photograph by Davis and Sanford*)



